THE PROSPECTS AND COMPLEXITIES OF QUALITY EDUCATION IN SATELLITE PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF MAKONDE DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE

by

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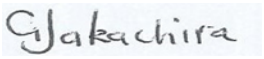
DECLARATION

I declare that "**THE PROSPECTS AND COMPLEXITIES OF QUALITY EDUCATION IN SATELLITE PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF MAKONDE DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE**" is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I submitted the thesis to originality checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.



…… DATE 09/09/2020

Signature

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to:

- My parents John Wesley and Joyce Jakachira for sacrificing so much for my education.
- My wife Kudakwashe Marimo and our children Joefrey Tariro, Jones Tavonga and Eunice Nokutenda. Thank you very much for your understanding, emotional support, and encouragement during my studies.
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ABSTRACT

The Fast Track Land Reform Programme, which the Government of Zimbabwe implemented in 2000, culminated in the emergence of unregistered satellite primary schools in former White-owned Large Scale Commercial Farming areas. The satellite school type provides education to the children of the fast track land reform beneficiaries. Existing research studies focused on the impact of contextual and resource inputs factors on the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. This multiple case study sought to address the knowledge gap on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools. The study was held at four selected satellite primary schools in Makonde District of Zimbabwe. Data were generated from a purposive sample of four Teachers in Charge and 16 teachers using in-depth interviews and Focus Group Interviews, respectively. The data were analysed using Thematic Analysis and Constant Comparative Analysis. The Teachers in Charge who perform multiple administrative roles simultaneously with full teaching loads head satellite primary schools. This administrative set-up leaves the Teachers in Charge with limited time to effectively teach their classes and supervise curriculum implementation by the teachers. Regardless of the prevalence of multi-grade classes in satellite primary schools, no Teachers in Charge and teachers staffing the schools are trained in multi-grade pedagogy. The Teachers in Charge and teachers are not receiving Multi-grade Teaching support from Cluster Heads and School Inspectors who also lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy. Due to a lack of financial support from the government, there is deplorable accommodation and an acute shortage of classrooms and instructional materials in the schools. Some satellite primary schools adopted the Double-sessioning schooling system to contend with the acute shortage of teaching and learning space. However, Double-sessioning poses time management challenges that compel the teachers to focus on teaching examinable learning areas. Large class sizes, high teacher turnover, and infrequent supervision visits by School Inspectors further thwart the prospects of quality education in satellite primary schools. The study concludes that the satellite primary school has pedagogical and management process deficiencies that complicate the provision of quality education. The participants proffered recommendations that can engender the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

KEYWORDS

Quality education, satellite school, pedagogical process, management process, Teacher in Charge, Multi-grade Teaching.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ARTUZ	Amalgamated Rural Teachers' Union of Zimbabwe
BSPZ	Better Schools Programme Zimbabwe
CCA	Constant Comparative Analysis
CRC	Cluster Resource Centre
CSA	Closed Systems Approach
DFA	Dakar Framework of Action
DS	Double-sessioning
DSIR	District Schools Inspector's Report
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EFA	Education for All
ESAP	Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
ESR	Effective Schools Research
ETF	Education Transition Fund
FGI	Focus Group Interviews
FTLRP	Fast Track Land Reform Programme
FTLRRAs	Fast Track Land Reform Resettlement Areas
GoR	Government of Rhodesia
GoZ	Government of Zimbabwe
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ILO	International Labour Organisation
LRRP	Land Reform and Resettlement Programme
LSCFAs	Large Scale Commercial Farming Areas
MGT	Multi-grade Teaching
MoESAC	Ministry of Education, Sports, Arts and Culture
MoPSE	Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
MSFS	Minimum Schools Functionality Standards

NTSHs	Non-teaching School Heads
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OST	Open Systems Theory
PCIET	Presidential Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training
PED	Provincial Education Director
PoZ	Parliament of Zimbabwe
PSC	Public Service Commission
PTUZ	Progressive Teachers' Union of Zimbabwe
SDC	School Development Committee
SDCs	School Development Committees
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SEM	School Effectiveness Model
SER	School Effectiveness Research
SIG	School Improvement Grant
SIGs	School Improvement Grants
SIR	School Improvement Research
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics
TA	Thematic Analysis
TIC	Teacher in Charge
TICs	Teachers in Charge
TQM	Total Quality Management
TRF	Teacher Recruitment Freeze
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Emergency Fund
VPA	Visual and Performing Arts
ZIMSEC	Zimbabwe Schools Examinations Council
ZIMTA	Zimbabwe Teachers' Association

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

The Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ) implemented the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) in the year 2000 to redress a colonial land ownership pattern in the country that was skewed in favour of Whites (Matondi, 2012; Mutema, 2012). The land ownership pattern reconfigured because of the FTLRP. Over 700 million hectares of land, previously owned by only 4,000 White commercial farmers, were rapidly redistributed to over 300,000 indigenous Zimbabwean households (Moyo, 2011; Mutema, 2012). In a very short period, the former White-dominated Large Scale Commercial Farming Areas (LSCFAs) were transformed into Fast Track Land Reform Resettlement Areas (FTLRRAs) for the fast track land reform beneficiaries. The resettlement of the land beneficiaries in former White-owned LSCFAs where schools were very few presented the government with an urgent need to establish schools for the children of the land beneficiaries (Chakanyuka, Chung & Stevenson, 2009; Parliament of Zimbabwe [PoZ], 2012; Mutema, 2014). The GoZ implemented the FTLRP when it was reeling from the effects of economic sanctions imposed by Britain and her allies in the year 2000 over the FTLRP, and a decade of economic meltdown that commenced in 2000 (Sadomba, 2011; Zhou & Zvoushe, 2012). Consequently, the government had neither the capacity nor resources to establish conventional schools and other social amenities in FTLRRAs. For expediency and as a stopgap measure, the government allowed the land beneficiaries to convert old farmhouses and tobacco barns into temporary school infrastructure and promised to construct conventional schools within 10 years (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; PoZ, 2012). The unconventional and unregistered schools are officially known as satellite schools in Zimbabwe's education system.

The unplanned and hastily executed FTLRP inadvertently culminated in the mushrooming of satellite schools in Zimbabwe's FTLRLAs. There are 1,855 satellite schools in Zimbabwe, comprising 839 satellite secondary schools and 1,016 satellite primary schools (Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education [MoPSE], 2017). **Table 1.1** shows the distribution of satellite schools in Zimbabwe by province. In comparative terms, Mashonaland West Province has the highest number of satellite schools in the country both at primary and secondary school levels. As shown in **Table 1.1**, Mashonaland West Province has 417 satellite schools comprising 236 and

181 primary and secondary schools, respectively. I conducted the study in Makonde District of Mashonaland West Province in Zimbabwe. Satellite schools are quite prevalent in this province because it was a predominantly commercial farming area that had the largest number of White-owned large scale commercial farms before the FTLRP in 2000 (MoPSE, 2015).

Table 1.1: Number of Satellite schools in Zimbabwe by Province

Province	**Primary schools**	**Secondary schools**
Bulawayo	5	4
Harare	4	5
Manicaland	72	134
Mashonaland Central	108	98
Mashonaland East	88	105
Mashonaland West	236	181
Masvingo	173	94
Matebeleland North	132	77
Matebeleland South	67	39
Midlands	131	102
Grand Total	**1,016**	**839**

Source: MoPSE (2017:4)

Satellite schools do not meet the Minimum Schools Functionality Standards (MSFS) that are a pre-condition for registration with the MoPSE (PoZ, 2012). Therefore, satellite schools are unregistered institutions. The MSFS are the minimum set benchmarks expected of each school to provide quality education (Ministry of Education, Sports, Arts and Culture [MoESAC], 2013b). They are the basic quality standards that a primary or secondary school in Zimbabwe should meet to qualify for registration with the MoPSE. A school qualifies for registration if it has at least one standard administration block, a standard teacher's house, and a standard classroom block (PoZ, 2012; MoESAC, 2013b). The other preliminary requirements are a safe source of drinking water within 500 metres of the school campus, and adequate ablution facilities for staff members and learners (PoZ, 2012; MoESAC, 2013b). Over 1,800 satellite schools in the country are unregistered because of the failure to meet those preliminary MSFS. This raises concerns about the quality of education that satellite schools provide.

For purposes of paying salaries to teachers, the MoPSE attaches each satellite school to a nearby registered school officially known, as the 'mother school' (PoZ, 2012). The school head of the 'mother school' is the substantive head of the satellite school (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; PoZ, 2012). This effectively makes the satellite school an extension of the 'mother school' in terms of learner enrolment, staffing, and administration. The MoPSE also appoints a Teacher in Charge (TIC) to head each satellite school (PoZ, 2012; Mangwaya, Jeko & Manyumwa, 2013). The term TIC refers to a teaching principal of a satellite school in Zimbabwe's education system.

Although satellite schools were established as a stopgap measure to allow the government to establish conventional schools (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; PoZ, 2012), they are still operational two decades after the commencement of the FTLRP in 2000. Thousands of learners in FTLRRAs experience their whole school careers under unconventional teaching and learning conditions in satellite schools (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; PoZ, 2012). Several researchers in Zimbabwe raised concerns about the quality of education in satellite schools. Studies by Chakanyuka et al. (2009), Hlupo and Tsikira (2012), PoZ (2012), Jenjekwa (2013), Mangwanya et al. (2012), as well as Mavhunga and Mazodze (2014) indicate that satellite schools provide the poorest quality of education in Zimbabwe. Learners in satellite schools, like all other learners in the country, have constitutional and inalienable rights to quality education (MoPSE, 2015). The study explored the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools in the context of pedagogical and management processes so that they are adapted to enhance the provision of quality education.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The FTLRP that the GoZ implemented in the year 2000 had ripple effects on the provision of social services in FTLRRAs, and education was no exception. The unplanned and hastily implemented FTLRP culminated in the emergence of unconventional and unregistered satellite primary schools in FTLRRAs (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; PoZ, 2012; MoPSE, 2017). Quality education scholars and other stakeholders of education in Zimbabwe raised concerns about the quality of education in satellite schools. Existing studies (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012; PoZ, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013; Mangwaya et al., 2013; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014; Tarisayi, 2015) consistently indicate that the satellite school type provides the poorest quality of

education in Zimbabwe. The studies attribute the poor quality of education in satellite schools to poor infrastructure, inadequate instructional resources, long distance to school, negative parental attitudes towards education, and poor living conditions for teachers. Quality education is a multi-dimensional phenomenon comprising the context, inputs, transformation process, and outputs dimensions (Tikly, 2011; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). A close analysis of the existing studies of satellite schools reveals that they focused on the impact of context and inputs factors on the provision of quality education in the schools. This has created a knowledge gap on the nature and quality of the transformation processes in satellite schools. The transformation process dimension of quality education comprises the teaching, learning, and management processes (Ballantine & Hammack, 2012; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012).

The scholarly silence on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite schools is continuing in recent studies. A qualitative study by Sithole (2017) explored factors affecting the motivation of teachers in satellite schools. The study focused on factors in the context and inputs dimensions of quality education. Tarisayi (2017) conducted a qualitative study on how fast track land reform beneficiaries utilise social capital to construct teaching and learning infrastructure in satellite schools. A multiple case study by Tarisayi and Manbibi (2017) analysed the relations between satellite schools and their 'mother schools'. Mwiinde and Muzingili (2020) carried out a qualitative study of satellite schools in the Binga District of Zimbabwe. The authors found that the poor quality of education in the schools is a consequence of dilapidated infrastructure, lack of funding from parents and the government, as well as the long distance that learners walk to school. These complexities to the provision of quality education fall under the context and inputs dimensions of quality education. There is a knowledge gap on the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools in the context of pedagogical and management processes that the study intends to address.

1.3 MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION

The study sought to address the following main research question:

- How can the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools be adapted to enhance the provision of quality education?

1.3.1 Sub-questions

I sub-divided the main research question into the following sub-questions that I also used as interviewing questions:

- What is the nature and quality of pedagogical processes in satellite primary schools in the provision of quality education?
- How is the nature and quality of management processes in satellite primary schools implemented during the provision of quality education?
- How are the prospects and complexities of quality primary education in satellite schools currently managed?
- How can quality education be improved in satellite primary schools?

1.4 RESEARCH AIM

The study aimed at establishing the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools located in FTLRRAs in Makonde District so that they are adapted to enhance the provision of quality education.

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The study sought to:

- explore the nature and quality of pedagogical processes in satellite primary schools in the provision of quality education;
- explore how the nature and quality of management processes in satellite primary schools is implemented during the provision of quality education;
- establish how the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools are currently managed; and
- recommend how the quality of education in satellite primary schools can be improved.

1.6 LITERATURE PREVIEW

This section provides a synopsis of the literature reviewed in detail in Chapters 2 and 3. Chapter 2 reviews the literature on quality education. The same chapter presents and justifies the theoretical framework informing the study. Chapter 3 presents a review of the literature on the quality of education in small rural schools.

1.6.1 Literature review on quality education

According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) (2015), from the early 1990s, there was a shift of focus from quantity to quality of education, making quality education the major goal of education around the world. Regardless of this development, there is no common understanding of the concept of quality education among quality assurance scholars. Quality education is a multi-dimensional and relative concept that is conceptualised differently by different scholars (Tikly, 2011; Tawil, Akkari & Macedo, 2012). Chapter 2 reviews several competing definitions, models of quality education, and models of school effectiveness. The literature exposes the quality dimensions and determinants that can enhance or inhibit the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. The chapter also reviews the literature on the rationale for quality education.

1.6.1.1 Theoretical framework

The review of quality education literature and the research problem guided me in selecting a relevant theoretical framework for the study. The Open Systems Theory (OST) developed by Ludwig von Bertalanffy in the 1950s informs the study. According to von Bertalanffy (1968), an organisation is an open social system comprising five interrelated and interacting elements, namely context, inputs, transformation process, outputs, and feedback. The five elements or sub-systems function as a unit to achieve the organisation's set goals. Virtually all school organisations are open social systems that acquire inputs from their external environments and process them into outputs that they export into the environment (Lunenburg, 2010; Owens & Valesky, 2011; Ballantine & Hammack, 2012). The school organisation gets feedback from its internal and external environments regarding the quality of its context, inputs, transformation process, and outputs (Ballantine & Hammack, 2012; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). Through feedback, the

school organisation acquires information that enables it to address the challenges thwarting its efforts to provide quality education (Lunenburg, 2010; Ballantine & Hammack, 2012). The OST addresses the transformation process dimension of quality education, which is the main concern of this study. Henceforth, it is a relevant theoretical framework for exploring the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

1.6.2 Quality of education in small rural schools

Before the FTLRP in 2000, there were farm schools in White-owned LSCFAs in Zimbabwe (Khadhani & Riddell, 1981; Auret, Mclvor, Chifunyise & McCartney, 2000). The satellite school type emerged in the same setting following FTLRP that commenced in 2000. Chapter 3 reviews the literature on White-owned farm schools in detail. The literature provides the historical context and background to the provision of quality education in satellite schools. The chapter also reviews the existing literature on the quality of education in satellite primary schools. Generally, there is scholarly silence on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools in Zimbabwe. Therefore, the literature on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in small rural schools was mainly drawn from other countries. This literature provides insights into the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools. Finally, the chapter reviews the literature on the quality education initiatives that the GoZ adopted to improve the quality of primary and secondary education in the country.

1.7 METHODOLOGY

This section outlines the interpretive-qualitative research methodology that I adopted to address the research problem. In Chapter 4, I present a detailed discussion and justification of the research methodology.

1.7.1 Research paradigm and approach

The ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions of the interpretive paradigm guide this study. A research paradigm entails the philosophical lenses through which a community of researchers conceives and executes research (Kuhn, 1962). The interpretive paradigm and the qualitative research approach inform the study. Interpretivists assume that humans socially

construct reality through social interaction, and attach meanings to it (Neuman, 2014; Taylor, Bogdan & DeVault, 2016). The goal of qualitative research is to reconstruct social reality from the standpoint of research participants involved in constructing it (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Braun & Clarke, 2013). In this regard, I adopted the interpretive-qualitative research methodology to understand the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools from the perspectives of the Teachers in Charge (TICs) and teachers. Qualitative researchers emphasise the importance of the situational context in understanding the phenomenon under study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018). In line with this view, I carried out the study in the natural context of the research participants, that is, their respective schools. Qualitative research is more concerned about the process rather than the outcomes of research (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Taylor et al., 2016). Henceforth, the study focused on how pedagogical and management processes in satellite schools affect the provision of quality education than examination pass rates.

1.7.2 Research design

The multiple case study design was utilised to explore the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in the four selected satellite primary schools. When a researcher studies two or more relatively similar entities, settings, or depositories of data in a single study, it becomes a multiple case study (Stake, 2010; Leedy & Ormrod, 2015; Yin, 2018). I adopted the multiple case study design to study the four selected satellite primary schools. The more cases are included in a study, the greater the variation across the cases, and the more compelling are the research findings (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Starman, 2013; Yin, 2018). Thus, the multiple case study design enabled me to generate a holistic picture of the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools, and their impact on the provision of quality education.

1.7.3 Population and sampling

The population for this study comprised 55 satellite primary schools in Makonde District: their 55 TICs and 709 teachers (District Schools Inspector's Report [DSIR], 2020). The purposive sampling procedure was utilised for selecting the study sample from the population. Purposive sampling involves the researcher deliberately selecting information-rich sites and informants concerning the research topic (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Patton, 2015). I purposively

sampled four satellite primary schools, four TICs of the schools, and 16 teachers (four teachers from each school with the longest teaching experience in satellite primary schools). Chapter 4 justifies the purposive sampling procedure.

1.7.4 Data generation

Qualitative researchers favour data generation methods that offer research participants opportunities to express their experiences and situations in detail (Mertens, 2010; Taylor et al., 2016). I generated data for the study through in-depth interviews with TICs and FGIs with the teachers. The two unstructured data generation methods enabled me to capture the emic perspectives of the research participants on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in the schools. I planned the data generation methods in such a way that, the data generated from TICs cross-checked the data from teachers and vice versa. This was possible because I asked the participants similar sub-questions of the study stated in Section 1.3.1. The triangulation of study sites, data generation methods, and research participants enhanced the trustworthiness of the study's findings.

1.7.5 Data analysis

I analysed the data generated from the study using the Thematic Analysis (TA) and Constant Comparative Analysis (CCA). TA is a method of identifying themes or patterns of meanings across a data set concerning the research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Braun, Clarke, Hayfield & Terry, 2018). It comprises the following six stages: Organising the data; Immersion in the data; Generating codes; Generating categories; Generating themes, and Producing the report (Braun & Clarke, 2013). I utilised TA to establish recurring themes and categories on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in the selected satellite primary schools.

To analyse the data adequately, I triangulated TA with the CCA procedure developed by Glaser and Strauss in 1967. The CCA data analysis procedure is an inductive method of building categories, themes, and theories from generated data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Willig, 2013). It involves the continuous comparison of data both within and across cases to generate categories, themes and theories inductively. The CCA data analysis procedure consists of the following four stages: Coding and comparing segments; Integration of segments into categories; Delimitation of

categories; and Setting out the theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). I applied TA and CCA throughout the data generation and analysis process. The two data analysis procedures facilitated the identification of recurring themes and categories on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

1.7.6 Ethical considerations

The notion of ethical considerations entails the standards of right and wrong that guide researchers to research in a professionally and morally acceptable manner (Singleton & Straits, 2010; Best & Khan, 2010). Researchers should observe the following ethical principles: Approval to conduct the study; Informed consent; Privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity; as well as Avoidance of harm (Neuman, 2014; Cohen et al., 2018) among others. I upheld the ethical considerations as discussed in detail in Chapter 4 to avoid violating the research participants' rights.

1.8 RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY

Zimbabwe has made significant progress in the quantitative dimension of education since the attainment of independence in 1980. It achieved the quantitative expansion of education in 1990, and the focus is now on improving the quality of education (Nyagura, 1993; UNESCO, 2009). Regardless of the shift from quantity to quality of education, it is consistently reported that satellite schools provide the least quality of education in Zimbabwe (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012; PoZ, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013; Mangwaya et al., 2013; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014; Tarisayi, 2015; Mwiinde & Muzingili, 2020). Therefore, the learners enrolled in satellite schools are denied the right to quality education. This right is enshrined in the Dakar Framework of Action (DFA), of which Zimbabwe is a signatory. The DFA commits all nations to expand access to education and strive to improve all aspects of quality education so that all learners achieve better learning outcomes, especially in literacy, numeracy, and life skills (UNESCO, 2004). Following the adoption and ratification of the provisions of the DFA, the provision of quality education is now the major goal of educational systems in most developing countries, including Zimbabwe.

The DFA expired in 2015, and the Education 2030 Framework of Action, which Zimbabwe ratified, reinvigorated the international quest for quality education. The overarching goal of the Education 2030 Framework of Action is to "ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and

promote lifelong learning opportunities for all" (UNESCO, 2015:8). Zimbabwe is striving to provide quality education as evidenced by the Mission Statement of her MoPSE that seeks "to provide equitable, quality, inclusive, relevant and competence-driven infant, junior, secondary and non-formal education" (MoPSE, 2015:1). Given this Mission Statement, it is prudent to establish and adapt the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools to the provision of quality education.

On the one hand, there is overwhelming evidence that sustained access to quality education contributes to school attainment, higher lifetime earnings, more robust economic growth, poverty reduction, and public health than the quantity of education (UNESCO, 2004; Hanushek & Wöβmann, 2010; Hanushek & Woessmann, 2012). On the other hand, studies indicate that poor quality of education is associated with school dropout, grade repetition, and parental reluctance to enrol their children in school (Reddy & Sinha, 2010; UNESCO, 2011). By implication, quality education is a fundamental determinant of enrolment, retention, gender parity, school attainment, and socio-economic development. The economic and social pay-offs of quality education, concretise the need for Zimbabwe to rethink quality in the provision of primary education in satellite schools.

1.9 ASSUMPTIONS

I assumed that there are complexities to the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools located in Zimbabwe's FTLRRAs. This assumption is based on the observation that satellite schools were hastily established during the FTLRP, which commenced in the year 2000 (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; PoZ, 2012). The government authorised the fast track land reform beneficiaries to establish satellite schools as a stopgap measure to provide education to their children while conventional schools would be built later (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; PoZ, 2012). However, the government has not yet constructed conventional schools in FTLRRAs two decades after the commencement of the FTLRP in 2000.

1.10 DELINEATION OF THE STUDY

There are 1, 016 satellite primary and 839 satellite secondary schools in Zimbabwe's 10 provinces totalling 1,855 satellite schools in the country (MoPSE, 2017). The study was limited to four

satellite primary schools in Makonde District of Mashonaland West Province in Zimbabwe. It excluded other satellite primary schools in the district. There are four basic dimensions of quality education, namely context, inputs, transformation process, and outputs (Cheng, 2003; Ballantine & Hammack, 2012; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). In exploring the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools, I focused on pedagogical and management processes that fall under the transformation process dimension of quality education.

1.11 DISSEMINATION OF THE FINDINGS

Researchers should explain how they intend to disseminate the findings of the study (Willig, 2013). A research paper on the findings of the study shall be delivered to School Inspectors, Cluster Heads, Heads of 'mother schools', TICs, and teachers in Makonde District, where the study was carried out. I will also disseminate the findings through publications in accredited journals. The MoPSE Head Office in Harare, as well as the Provincial and District Education Offices in Chinhoyi, shall each receive a copy of the thesis for any future policy planning, development, and implementation purposes.

1.12 DEFINITION OF TERMS

This section defines the key terms of the study. I defined the terms as they are used in the study.

Quality education: Cheng (2003) defines quality education as the character of the set of elements in the context, inputs, transformation process, and outputs of the education system that provides services that completely satisfy both internal and external strategic stakeholders by meeting their expectations. In the context of this study, the term quality education refers to a relevant and holistic education that equips learners with both cognitive and non-cognitive skills to enable them to function effectively and productively in their society.

Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP): It entails the unplanned, rapid, and phenomenal distribution of White-owned farms to landless indigenous Zimbabweans, which started in the year 2000 (Matondi, 2012; Mutema, 2012).

Fast Track Land Reform Resettlement Areas (FTLRRAs): These are the former White-owned commercial farming areas that were allocated to landless indigenous Zimbabweans following the FTLRP, which commenced in the year 2000 (Moyo, 2011; Mutema, 2012).

Satellite school: An unregistered school type established in FTLRLAs following the FTLRP in 2000 to provide education to the children of fast track land reform beneficiaries (Munjanganja & Machawira, 2014; Tarisayi & Manik, 2017).

Small rural school: A rural school headed by a teaching principal, characterised by an enrolment below the national average and few teachers (Ngcobo, 2016).

'Mother school': A registered primary school to which a satellite school is attached for management and administrative support (PoZ, 2012; Munjanganja & Machawira, 2014).

Teacher in Charge (TIC): A term used to refer to the teaching principal of a satellite school in Zimbabwe (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; PoZ, 2012).

Multi-grade class: It occurs when one teacher is responsible for teaching learners belonging to at least two different grade levels in a single classroom (Joubert, 2010; Taole, 2017).

Multi-grade Teaching (MGT): The teaching of learners of different grade levels by one teacher at the same time in a single classroom (Pridmore, 2007; Joubert, 2010).

Pedagogical processes: Teaching and learning techniques, approaches, methods, and strategies (Ballantine & Hammack, 2012).

Management processes: They involve planning, organising, controlling, leading, supervising, and supporting school activities to accomplish set goals (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012; Hoy & Miskel, 2013).

Double-sessioning (DS): A school practices DS if it caters for two separate groups of learners during the school day using the same buildings, equipment, and other facilities (Bray, 2008).

1.13 DEMARCATION OF CHAPTERS

The study consists of six chapters demarcated as follows:

Chapter 1 is the introduction and background to the study. The chapter articulates the research problem and traces its background. It also looks at the main research questions and sub-questions, research aim and objectives, literature preview, methodology, and the relevance of the study. The other issues in this chapter are assumptions, delineation, limitations, ethical considerations, the definition of terms, and demarcation of chapters.

Chapter 2 is the first of the two literature review chapters of this study. This chapter reviews the literature on quality education. It covers the following issues: The elusive concept of quality education; Models of quality education; School effectiveness research; Theoretical framework; and Rationale for quality education.

Chapter 3 is the second and final literature review chapter. It reviews the literature on the quality of education in small rural primary schools, which include satellite schools. This chapter also provides the initiatives that the GoZ implemented to improve the quality of primary and secondary education in the country.

Chapter 4 describes and justifies the interpretive-qualitative research methodology that I adopted for this study. It covers the following methodological issues: Research paradigm; Research approach; Research design; Population and sampling procedures; Data generation; Data analysis; Trustworthiness; and Ethical issues.

Chapter 5 presents an analysis and discussion of the findings of the study in the context of sub-questions of the study, the reviewed literature, and the theoretical framework.

Chapter 6 gives a summary of the findings, conclusions, and recommendations of the study. The chapter also discusses the limitations of the study.

1.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented the introduction and background to the study. It established that existing studies explored the quality of education in satellite schools in terms of contextual and input factors. There is a knowledge gap on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools that the study intends to plug. These processes fall under the transformation process dimension of quality education. The chapter also presented the research

aim and objectives, the main research question, and sub-questions of the study. The other issues covered in this chapter are the literature preview, a summary of the research methodology, relevance of the study, delineation and limitations, dissemination of the findings, definitions of terms, and demarcation of chapters. The next chapter reviews the literature on quality education.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW ON QUALITY EDUCATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 presented the introduction and background to the study. The chapter exposed the existence of a knowledge gap in the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools. This chapter reviews quality education literature related to the study. The chapter commences by conceptualising quality education. There is no coherence in the way quality education is conceptualised because it is a multi-faceted and contested concept (Tikly, 2011; Tawil et al., 2012). The purpose of this chapter is not to propose a standard definition or model of quality education, but to review and clarify an array of existing quality education definitions. The clarification of what quality education entails provides insights into the context, inputs, transformation process, and outputs dimensions of quality education. The chapter also reviews the literature on models of quality education and school effectiveness. Based on the literature and research problem, I adopted the OST as the theoretical framework informing the study. The chapter ends by discussing the rationale for quality education.

2.2 THE ELUSIVE CONCEPT OF QUALITY EDUCATION

Quality education is a multi-dimensional, relative, elusive, and dynamic concept that is difficult to define in universal terms (Tikly, 2011; Tawil et al., 2012; Sanyal, 2013). Consequently, there is no standard definition of quality education in quality assurance literature. Even if quality education is an elusive concept, there is often agreement globally that it is a central goal of education (UNESCO, 2004; UNESCO, 2015; MoPSE, 2015). An understanding of the concept of quality education is indispensable for the effective analysis of the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools. Several quality education scholars have attempted to define the concept of quality education. The United Nations Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) (2012) defines quality education from a human rights-based perspective as education that works for every child and enables all learners to achieve their full potential. This definition does not specify the dimensions of quality education. As such, it is not very useful for assessing the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

Cheng (2003) defines quality education as the character of the set of elements in the context, inputs, transformation process, and outputs of the education system that provides services that completely satisfy both internal and external strategic stakeholders by meeting their expectations. This definition identifies four dimensions of quality education, namely context, inputs, transformation process, and outputs. Cheng's (2003) definition also associates quality education with the fitness of purpose, which is the satisfaction of the expectations of strategic stakeholders such as policymakers, parents, learners, and teachers. This conception of quality education meets the condition by Nsubuga (2011) that local stakeholders should have a voice and participate in defining quality education. The major limitation of this definition is that the expectations of strategic stakeholders are usually relative and, therefore, difficult to meet.

To Sayed and Ahmed (2011), quality education encompasses the interaction between what learners bring to school which is the learner characteristics; what happens in the learning space such as school or classroom setting also called enabling inputs; what happens to individuals as a consequence of education or outcomes; and the context within which the activity takes place. This is a broader definition that captures most of the dimensions of quality education. Tikly and Barret (2011) argue that the definition is limited because it does not emphasise the non-quantifiable indicators of quality education such as inclusivity, equity, relevance, attitudes, and skills. Definitions that ignore the non-quantifiable aspects of quality education are narrow in their scope (Tilky, 2010; Tikly & Barret, 2011). Such definitions do not provide a comprehensive conceptual framework for analysing the quality of education in satellite schools.

There is growing support for the conceptualisations of quality education that incorporate the qualitative goals of education (Tikly & Barret, 2011; UNESCO, 2010). In line with this view, Tikly (2010) says good quality education enables learners to realise the capabilities they require to become economically productive, develop sustainable livelihoods, contribute to peaceful and democratic societies, and enhance well-being. The learning outcomes at the end of the basic education cycle include threshold levels of literacy and numeracy skills, as well as awareness and prevention of disease. Good quality education must also be inclusive, relevant, and democratic (Tikly, 2010; Tikly & Barret, 2011). This definition reflects both the quantitative and qualitative dimensions of quality education. Therefore, it is comprehensive. Definitions that attend to both the

quantitative and qualitative dimensions of quality education enable us to have a holistic understanding of the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools.

The notion that an education system is of good quality if it meets the socio-economic and socio-cultural needs of society in the 21st century is rising in quality education discourse. Expressing this view, Ng (2015) says quality education emphasises holistic development and equips learners with knowledge and skills for the future. In this context, quality education entails the relevance of content to the present and future needs of society. An education system is of good quality if it is responsive to society's current and future socio-economic needs.

A close analysis of the definitions reviewed in the preceding paragraphs reveals that quality education is indeed a multi-faceted concept that is conceptualised differently by different scholars. Regardless of the lack of consensus on a standard and universal definition of quality education, the UNESCO EFA Global Monitoring Report (GMR) 2005 identifies two basic principles that underpin all the conceptualisations of quality education. The first principle focuses on the cognitive development of learners, with high scores in national examinations as the primary indicator of high quality of education (UNESCO, 2004). Some quality education scholars have criticised the efficacy of test scores as the sole indicator of quality education. Sifuna and Sawamura (2010) argue that the focus on examination scores is detrimental to the quality of the pedagogical process as teachers tend to resort to rote pedagogy or transmissive approaches to prepare learners for examinations. Rote pedagogy is a barrier to quality education because learners may fail to apply memorised facts to solve real-life problems in their communities and society.

The second principle relates to education's role in developing learners' values and attitudes, nurturing their creative skills and emotional development, and promoting inclusivity, equity, democracy, human rights, peace, and security (UNESCO, 2004; Tikly & Barret, 2010). These qualitative indicators are not only difficult to measure, but also open to different interpretations in different contexts (UNESCO, 2004; UNESCO, 2010; Tikly, 2011). By implication, we can only develop a comprehensive understanding of quality education if we conceptualise it regarding both its quantifiable and non-quantifiable dimensions.

The relevance of education to the socio-economic developmental needs of society in the new millennium characterised by globalisation and Information and Communication Technology (ICT)

is becoming central to the understanding of quality education in virtually all contemporary societies (Ng, 2015). In this regard, the third principle of quality education is at this moment proposed. An education system is of good quality if it adequately equips learners with requisite knowledge, skills, and values to become productive and acceptable members of their society in the new millennium. In the context of this study, quality education is conceptualised as a relevant and holistic education that equips learners with both cognitive and non-cognitive skills to function effectively and productively in their society.

2.3 MODELS OF QUALITY EDUCATION

To understand the complex nature of quality education and develop strategies for evaluating and improving it, there is a need to review different models of quality education (Cheng, 2003). The models articulate the dimensions and determinants of quality education. They also provide hints on how to improve the quality of education in school organisations including satellite primary schools.

2.3.1 Goal Model

The Goal Model is informed by the school effectiveness paradigm that emerged on the quality education landscape in the 1960s. This model states that school organisations have well-accepted, specific, enduring, and normative goals that they are established to accomplish (Cheng & Tam, 1997; Cheng, 2003). One such goal is the provision of quality education. A school organisation provides quality education if it can meet or exceed its stated goals with the available resources (Cheng, 2003). By implication, the failure by a school to attain its set goals may be an indicator of poor quality of education.

The Goal Model is useful for judging quality education if organisational goals are clear and accepted by all constituencies (Cheng & Tam, 1997; Cheng, 2003). This suggests is that a school organisation lacks quality if its goals are a product of the powerful stakeholders rather than the society or community as a whole. Although set organisational goals are diverse, there is a tendency for school organisations to prioritise the academic achievement of learners in public examinations as the sole goal and indicator of quality education (Cheng, 2003). When viewed in this way, the Goal Model does not provide us with a comprehensive assessment of the quality of education in

school organisations. There is a need to assess all the dimensions of quality education, particularly the process dimension that existing studies of satellite primary schools in Zimbabwe ignored.

2.3.2 Inputs Model

The notion of quality as inputs is associated with the school effectiveness movement that emerged in quality education literature in the 1960s. This model assumes that quality resource inputs are the universal determinant of quality education (Adams, 1993; Cheng & Tam, 1997; Cheng, 2003). The quality indicators of the Inputs Model include high-quality student intake, highly qualified staff, the best facilities and equipment, low teacher-learner ratios, high staff salaries, and top financial support (Cheng, 2003). In this model, quality education is regarded as the natural result of high-quality inputs. This model tends to focus too much on the quality of inputs, ignoring the impact of the transformation process and contextual factors on the provision of quality education. This is the case with existing studies of quality education in satellite primary schools, which focused on contextual and resource inputs factors. It requires the unrestrained interaction of inputs, transformation processes, and contextual factors for quality education to be realised (Fuller, 1986). Therefore, the provision of inputs is a necessary but insufficient condition for improving the quality of education in school organisations.

2.3.3 Process Model

The Process Model emerged in quality education literature from the 1980s. The school improvement movement informs the process model. The proponents of the Process Model recognise that quality education cannot be conceptualised by exclusive reference to inputs and outputs, and instead focus on the transformation process (Riddell, 2008). The transformation process of a school organisation includes the management, teaching, and learning processes. The UNESCO GMR 2005 acknowledges the importance of the transformation process as a determinant of quality education. It argues that what goes on in the classroom and the way teachers teach is vital for improving learning outcomes and the quality of education (UNESCO, 2004). Put in other words, an educational institution is perceived to be of high quality if its internal functioning is smooth and ‘healthy’ (Cheng, 2003). The crux of the Process Model is that the management, teaching, and learning processes are the central determinants of quality education. The quality of the transformation process of the satellite primary school is an under-researched area. This is why

the study focused on how the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools affect the provision of quality education.

2.3.4 Outputs Model

The conception of quality education as outputs or outcomes has its origins in the school efficiency movement of the 1970s (Scheerens, Luyten & Ravens, 2011). When outputs or outcomes are used as effectiveness indicators, we measure quality education in terms of the extent to which the desired outputs or consequences of schooling are achieved. The typical measures of this notion of quality education include learner achievement, completion rates, and transition rates (Cheng, 2003; Scheerens et al., 2011). To exponents of the Outputs Model, measuring the outputs of education is the only significant way of assessing the quality of education.

The Outputs Model tends to focus exclusively upon cognitive outputs of schooling at the expense of social and affective outputs (Creemers & Reynolds, 1996; Scheerens et al., 2011). Determining quality education by outputs alone is not holistic. The quality of the context, inputs, and processes also warrants assessment to have a comprehensive understanding of the quality of education in satellite primary schools. There is a need to assess all the dimensions of quality education in satellite primary schools, including the process dimension.

2.3.5 Value Addition Model

The notion of quality as value-added is rooted in the transformative school movement of the 1990s that interprets quality as a measure of change (Cheng, 2003; Stephens, 2003). Quality as value-added typically refers to the impact of the school system on the learner, that is, how the learner has changed because of the culture and norms of the school (Adams, 1993). It entails the extent to which the school system equips learners with skills, knowledge, and attitudes that make them acceptable and productive members of their society (Reddy, 2007). The Value Addition Model suggests that the higher the quality of education, the more it fosters acceptable knowledge, attitudes, values, skills, and behaviour in learners. This conception of quality education has been criticised for focusing solely on the degree of change, rather than the inputs, processes, and contextual factors that influence the value addition process (Adams, 1993). Value addition is difficult to assess both qualitatively and quantitatively, making the Value Addition Model a less

useful tool for understanding the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

2.3.6 Absence of Problems Model

Various internal and external problems or challenges can make it difficult for a school to provide quality education. The Absence of Problems Model assumes that the non-existence of problems, troubles, defects, weaknesses, difficulties, and dysfunctions in an educational institution is an indicator of high quality of education (Cheng, 2003). Expressed differently, the lack of characteristics of ineffectiveness in a school organisation is associated with quality education. Some quality education scholars refer to the notion of the absence of problems as 'zero defects'. It follows that the presence of defects or deficiencies in a school organisation is an indicator of little or no quality education (Cheng, 2003). The relative nature of absence or presence of problems in an organisation makes the model an unreliable conceptual tool for determining the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

2.3.7 Satisfaction Model

A school organisation provides high-quality education if it adequately satisfies the needs of its stakeholders (Cheng, 2003). The stakeholders include school administrators, teachers, school management committee, parents, learners, and education authorities, among others. This model states that the quality of education is high if its outcomes satisfy the needs and expectations of the stakeholders and low if it fails to do so (Cheng & Tam, 1997; Cheng, 2003). There is a close relationship between the Satisfaction Model and the notion of quality as reputation proposed by Adams (1993). The main limitation of this model is that stakeholder satisfaction is relative and difficult to quantify. What satisfies one stakeholder may not necessarily satisfy other stakeholders. This makes the Satisfaction Model a less useful conceptual tool for monitoring and evaluating the nature and quality of the transformation process of the satellite primary school.

2.3.8 Equity Model

The conception of quality as equity is rising in education literature. Equity in education entails that personal or social circumstances are not obstacles to educational access by some learners (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD], 2012). In this model,

equality of opportunity is the primary indicator of quality education. The model underscores that quality education depends upon the fair distribution of resource inputs and educational processes among learners with diverse needs and socio-economic backgrounds (OECD, 2012). A school organisation that is insensitive to the diverse needs of learners is of low quality (Leu & Price-Rom, 2006; OECD, 2012). This model is quite relevant in developing countries such as Zimbabwe, which adopted Inclusive Education in all schools, including satellite primary schools.

2.3.9 Organisational Learning Model

The Organisational Learning Model observes that school internal processes and environmental factors can influence the provision of quality education positively or negatively (Cheng & Tam, 1997; Cheng, 2003). This model recommends organisational learning as a tool for ensuring the provision of quality education in school organisations. Organisational learning entails seeking to understand and rectify the environmental and internal challenges impeding the school's quest to provide quality education (Cheng, 2003). The model looks at both the inside and outside of a school organisation to enhance the provision of quality education. Existing literature documented the impact of environmental factors on the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. Henceforth, there is a need to explore the nature and quality of the internal processes of the satellite school so that they are adapted to the provision of quality education.

2.3.10 Legitimacy Model

In contemporary societies, there is a significant increase in the parental choice of educational institutions. This has created a competitive market environment for education clients among educational institutions. To gain legitimacy for survival in this competitive environment, school organisations compete for clients by providing quality education (Cheng & Tam, 1997; Cheng, 2003). We often perceive the educational institutions that survive the competitive environment by attracting more clients to be of high quality. Fuller (1986) argues that there is a tendency to judge legitimacy solely in terms of academic achievement, ignoring the other dimensions of quality education. Taken this way, the Legitimacy Model may not provide a credible and holistic yardstick for analysing the quality of education in satellite primary schools.

2.3.11 Relevance of Education Model

Cheng (2003) stresses that even though stakeholders are satisfied with the quality of education, education is 'useless' and of poor quality, if its aims, content, practices, and outcomes are irrelevant to current and future local needs. Quality education is more than the satisfaction of strategic stakeholders and the provision of resource inputs, but relevance to local needs (Tawil et al., 2010; Tikly & Barret, 2011). Put differently, education is of good quality if it is relevant to the learner's social, cultural, political, and economic context. In tandem with this view, Zimbabwe replaced the bookish and Eurocentric curriculum that it inherited from its former coloniser in 1980 with a relevant and competence-based updated curriculum in 2015 (MoPSE, 2017). I also explored the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools in the mirror of the updated school curriculum.

2.3.12 Total Quality Management Model

The Total Quality Management (TQM) Model conceptualises quality education as education that completely satisfies strategic constituencies in terms of context, inputs, process, and outputs variables (Cheng, 2003). The model underscores the need for the management of context, inputs, processes, and outputs to obtain a holistic understanding of quality education in school organisations. It shifts attention away from the quality of the context, inputs or outputs, to all the dimensions of quality education (Hoy & Miskel, 2013; Hoy, 2019). Like the Organisational Learning Model reviewed in Section 2.3.9, the TQM Model looks at both the inside and outside of the school organisation. In this way, the model provides a holistic picture of quality education in school organisations. Research studies on satellite schools in Zimbabwe (PoZ, 2012; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014; Tarisayi, 2015; Sithole, 2017; Mwiinde & Muzingili, 2020) generally ignored the process dimension. This is the reason why I focused on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

2.4 SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS RESEARCH

The quest to establish factors that enhance the provision of quality education in school organisations led to the development of a large body of literature referred to as School Effectiveness Research (SER). School effectiveness is conceptualised by Cheng (1996 in Botha,

2010) as the extent to which a school adapts to its internal and external constraints and achieve its set goals. To Botha (2010), school effectiveness entails the state at which the school functions and effectively attains its goals. The main goal of SER is to identify the characteristics of effective schools and recommend them for the improvement of quality education. There are three strands of SER, namely, School Effects Research; Effective School Research (ESR); and School Improvement Research (SIR). This section also reviews the literature on Heneveld and Craig's (1996) School Effectiveness Model (SEM). The literature provides us with hints on how to improve the quality of education in satellite primary schools.

2.4.1 School Effects Research

School Effects Research emerged in the mid-1960s as a reaction to the Coleman Report (1996) and the Plowden Report (1967) that concluded that schools had little effect upon learners' outcomes in comparison to their ability and socio-economic backgrounds (Reynolds, Sammons, De Fraine, Townsend & Van Damme, 2011). The thrust of School Effects Research is to establish school-based factors that influence learner outcomes. Proponents of School Effects Research adopt the input-output paradigm and focus on the impact of resource inputs upon learner outcomes (Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000). Fuller and Heyneman (1989) conducted School Effects Research and identified resource inputs factors that affect learner outcomes. They identified the following factors: the length of the instructional programme; expenditure per pupil; the availability of textbooks and instructional materials; school library activity; teacher training; and pupil feeding programmes. School Effects Research studies conclude that resource inputs are the primary determinant of quality education (Fuller & Heyneman, 1989; Riddell, 2008; Reynolds et al., 2011). There is a close relationship between School Effects Research and the Inputs Model. Like the Inputs Model, School Effects Research has been criticised for exclusively focusing on the impact of resource inputs on learning outcomes at the expense of context and process factors. Resource inputs are not the sole determinant of learner outcomes, context and transformation process factors also influence learner outcomes (Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000; Stephens, 2003; Reynolds et al., 2011). In essence, the context, inputs, and transformation process interact in influencing learner outcomes.

In line with School Effects Research, existing studies on satellite schools in Zimbabwe (PoZ, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013; Mangwaya et al., 2013; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014; Mwiinde & Muzingili,

2020) focused on the contextual and inputs dimensions of quality education. This has created a knowledge gap on the nature and quality of transformation processes in satellite primary schools.

2.4.2 Effective Schools Research

The ESR movement emerged in school effectiveness literature in the early 1970s as a reaction to Schools Effects Research. The ESR moved away from the input-output approach and instead focused on the process variables that influence learner outcomes (Riddell, 2008). This model of school effectiveness attempts to understand quality education in terms of educational processes at both school and classroom levels (Stephens, 2003; Riddell, 2008). It rejects the narrow focus on school inputs and outputs and lack of attention to school and classroom processes associated with School Effects Research. The ESR movement puts pedagogical and school management processes at the centre of the quality education discourse (Riddell, 2008; Botha, 2010). The ESR movement concurs with the Process Model reviewed in Section 2.5.3 that, the transformation process of a school organisation is the primary determinant of quality education. More so, the ESR paradigm expanded the definition of outputs to include social and affective outcomes (Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000). Both the ESR model and the Process Model ignore the context and inputs dimensions of quality education. The impact of context and inputs variables on the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools is well documented in Zimbabwe (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012; PoZ, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013; Mangwaya et al., 2013; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014; Tarisayi, 2015). What is missing is the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes of the satellite primary school during the provision of quality education.

2.4.3 School Improvement Research

The SIR paradigm emerged on the quality education landscape in the late 1980s. School improvement is the systematic and sustained effort aimed at changing learning conditions in schools, to improve learner outcomes (van Velzen 1985 cited in Stephens, 2003). Proponents of the SIR movement such as Edmonds (1979) are not interested in just identifying and describing characteristics of effective schools; they want to create effective schools (Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000). Thus, the thrust of SIR is to improve the quality of education in school organisations. This strand of school effectiveness research is relevant to this study because it provides insights into

strategies that strategic stakeholders of education can adopt to improve the quality of education in satellite primary schools.

According to Riddell (2008), exponents of the SIR model accentuate that a complex web of factors influences learner outcomes and quality education. These factors are rooted in the context, inputs, and process dimensions of quality education. Fuller (1986) corroborates by saying it requires the unrestrained interaction of context, resource inputs, and process factors for quality education to be assured. The SIR model concurs with the TQM and Organisational Leadership Models reviewed in the preceding sections that, there is a need to take a holistic approach to the provision of quality education in school organisations. However, this study focused on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes because it is a knowledge gap in the discourse of quality education in satellite primary schools.

According to Teddlie and Reynolds (2000), school improvement is unique to each school since each school's context is unique. The authors advise that there is a need to involve local stakeholders in designing school improvement programmes. They argue that externally imposed school improvement programmes may fail to meet local requirements. Following the counsel of Teddlie and Reynolds (2000), I generated strategies for improving the quality of education in satellite primary schools from the perspectives of the teachers and TICs who are local stakeholders.

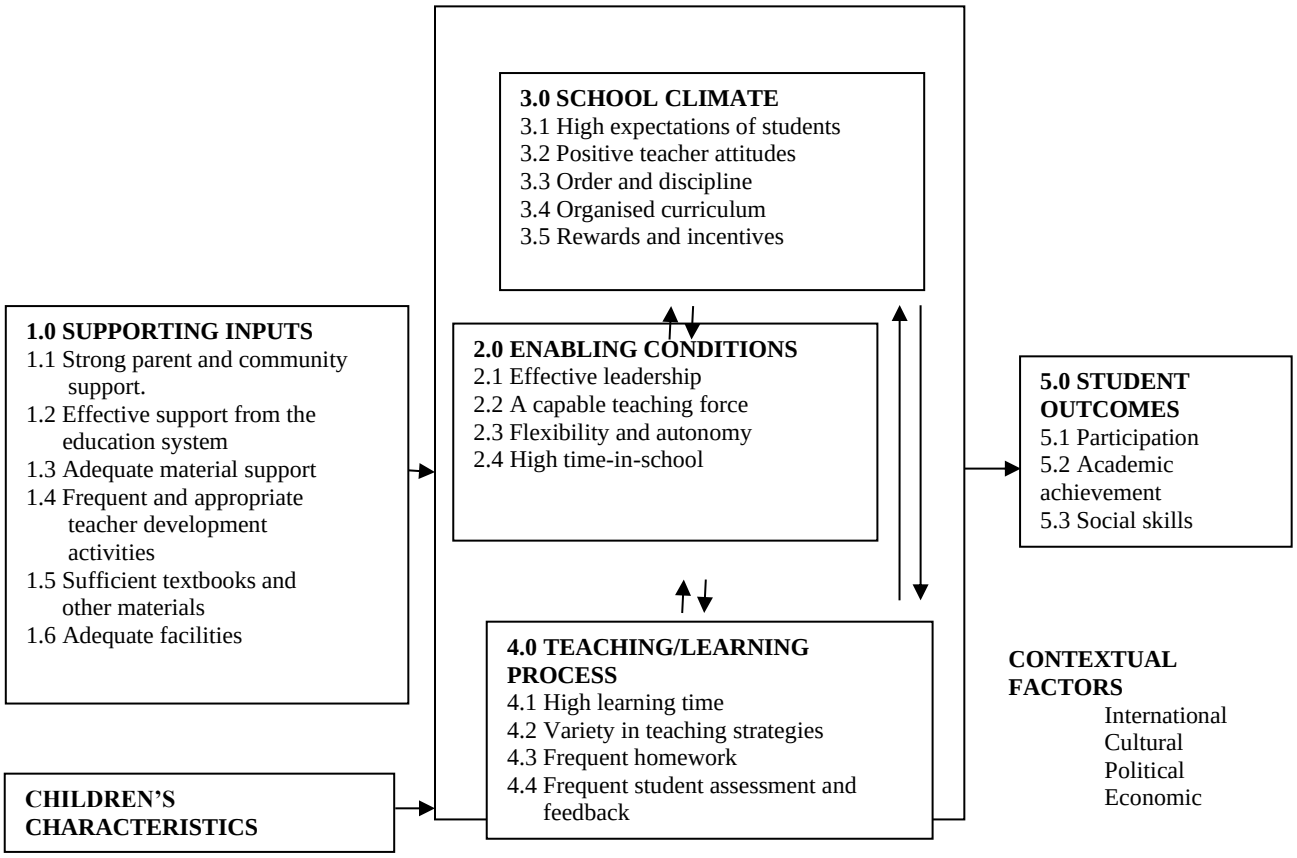
2.4.4 School Effectiveness Model

Heneveld and Craig (1996) synthesised research findings from School Effects, Effective Schools, and School Improvement studies into one School Effectiveness Model (SEM). As depicted in **Figure 2.2**, the SEM consists of an interrelated network of four broad factors that influence school effectiveness and learner outcomes. The factors are supporting inputs from outside the school, enabling conditions, school climate, as well as the teaching and learning process. The SEM monitors and assesses both the qualitative and quantitative indicators of school effectiveness and learner outcomes.

Supporting inputs are the first set of factors in the model. According to Heneveld and Craig (1996), supporting inputs that are vital for the provision of quality education include strong parental and community support, effective support from the government or responsible authority, and adequate

facilities. The other supporting inputs are appropriate teacher development programmes, and sufficient curriculum materials. Cheng and Tam (1997) corroborate that the availability of resource inputs is indispensable for the provision of quality education. Therefore, the inadequacy of supporting inputs can be a barrier to school effectiveness and the provision of quality education. There is a close relationship between the variables of the dimension of the supporting inputs those of the Inputs Model reviewed in Section 2.3.2.

Figure 2.1: School Effectiveness Model



Source: Heneveld and Craig (1996:20)

Enabling conditions for school effectiveness are the second set of factors in the model. According to Heneveld and Craig (1996), enabling conditions include effective school leadership, a capable teaching force, flexibility and autonomy, and adequacy of time spent in school. Effective school leadership entails adequate support to teachers in terms of curricula materials and infrastructure, the pursuit of high instructional standards, as well as regular horizontal and vertical communication (Heneveld & Craig, 1996). The variables of a capable teaching workforce include

content mastery, teaching experience, and the extent to which the teaching staff is full-time (Heneveld & Craig, 1996). The model emphasises high time in school as a prerequisite for quality education and learner achievement. A study conducted by Abadzi (2009) in Mali, Honduras, Nigeria, Zambia, and the Middle East corroborate and elaborate that limited instructional time as a result of DS, teacher absenteeism, and learner absenteeism impacts negatively on learner outcomes. The implication here is that, enabling conditions are critical for school effectiveness and the provision of quality education**.**

The third set of school effectiveness factors is referred to as school climate. The elements of school climate include positive teacher attitudes and expectations, order and discipline, an organised curriculum, and a system of rewards and incentives (Heneveld & Craig, 1996). The nature of the school climate has a bearing on the provision of quality education. For instance, negative teacher attitudes and expectations can negatively affect the behaviour and achievement of learners. A system of rewards and incentives for teachers is very important in the context of Africa, where the living and working conditions of teachers remain largely unsatisfactory (Chinapah et al., 2013; International Labour Organisation [ILO], 2016). Such living and working conditions can create a school climate that is not conducive to school effectiveness and the provision of quality education. Overall, a positive school climate enhances the provision of quality education.

The teaching and learning process is the fourth factor of the SEM that determines school effectiveness. The variables of the teaching and learning process include high student learning time, learner-centred teaching methods, frequent homework, as well as continual student assessment and feedback (Heneveld & Craig, 1996). Other quality assurance scholars (Cheng & Tam, 1997; Cheng, 2003; Alexander, 2008) corroborate the positive relationship between a healthy teaching and learning process, and quality education. The teaching and learning process variables are quite useful in exploring the nature and quality of the pedagogical processes in satellite schools.

The final factor that influences school effectiveness is the external environment of the school organisation. Heneveld and Craig (1996) state that, the four factors that determine school effectiveness are embedded in a cultural, political, and economic context. The authors underscore that the school interacts with its environment in providing quality education. Lotz-Sisitka (2013) and Tikly (2011) acknowledge the role of the external environment in enabling or constraining the

provision of quality education. The four factors identified by Heneveld and Craig (1996) provide us with a holistic picture of the determinants of school effectiveness and quality education.

Heneveld and Craig's (1996) SEM has been criticised. Reddy (2007) and Mbayo (2011) concur that the model has limitations for application in developing countries because most of its supporting evidence was drawn from developed countries. In short, the model is not rooted in the African context. In response to this criticism, Heneveld and Craig (1996) reviewed the model by incorporating research findings from African countries such as Tanzania, Uganda, Mozambique, and Madagascar. In this regard, they advise that "Strategies for improving the quality of primary education need to recognise the potential understanding and insight that come from local experience" (Heneveld & Craig, 1996:10). Guided by this counsel, I generated data for the study from TICs and teachers who had the local experience of the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

2.5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The literature reviewed in the preceding sections identify the context, inputs, process, and outputs dimensions of quality education. Guided by the reviewed literature and the research problem, I adopted the Open Systems Theory (OST) as the theoretical framework of the study. Among other dimensions of quality education, the OST articulates the transformation process dimension that existing studies of satellite schools ignore.

2.5.1 The Open Systems Theory

Ludwig von Bertalanffy, an Austrian Biologist developed the OST (Owens & Valesky, 2011; Ballantine & Hammack, 2012; Hoy & Miskel, 2013). The theory originated in the Natural Sciences in the 1950s and subsequently spread to the Social Sciences in the 1960s (Koskinen, 2013). It was further developed by Boulding (1956); Katz and Khan (1966); Buckley (1967); Litterer (1969); as well as Kast and Rosenzweig (1972) among other scholars (Scott & Davis, 2007; Ballantine & Hammack, 2012; Hoy & Miskel, 2013). The philosophy of Holism, which is associated with the German philosopher Hegel, informs the OST. Holism entails that a social system is made up of integrated and interdependent parts, which, when put together, make the behaviour of the organisation different and distinct from the behaviour of its components (Mele, Pels & Polese, 2010). The crux of Holism is that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. In tandem with the

philosophy of Holism, the OST studies the school organisation taking into consideration the interrelationships among its sub-systems in the provision of quality education.

2.5.2 The development of Open Systems Theory

The OST developed in reaction to the rational and natural systems theories that employ a Closed Systems Approach (CSA) to the study of organisations (Scott & Davis, 2007; Hoy & Miskel, 2013). Exponents of the CSA perceive organisations as self-contained entities that are not interactive with their external environments (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012; Hoy & Miskel, 2013). They focus on the internal functioning of organisations with no attention to the influence of external environmental factors. Expressed differently, proponents of the CSA assume that organisational behaviour can be isolated from external environmental forces. The major limitation of the CSA is that it fails to consider how organisations are dependent on their external environments for survival (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012; Hoy & Miskel, 2013; Hoy, 2019). The OST argues that there is a symbiotic relationship between the school organisation and its external environment. School organisations import resource inputs from their external environments for their survival and the provision of quality education (Ballantine & Hammack, 2012; Hoy & Miskel, 2013). The Inputs Model reviewed in Section 2.3.2 corroborates that quality education is the product of high-quality resource inputs the school imports from its environment. Therefore, the context and resource inputs are critical determinants of quality education.

The interdependence of the organisation and its environment receives primary attention in the OST. Rather than overlooking the environment as closed systems theories do, “the open systems perspective stresses the reciprocal ties that bind and interrelate the organisation with those elements and flows that surround and penetrate it” (Scott, 1987:9 as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2013:22-3). Katz and Khan (1978) acknowledge the primacy of the external environment in the OST. The authors argue that open systems move towards incorporating within their boundaries the external resources essential for survival. This also applies to satellite primary schools where the external environment is the source of resource inputs, which are vital for organisational effectiveness and the provision of quality education.

2.5.3 Schools as open systems

Open systems theorists perceive school organisations as open systems. The concept of an open system refers to a set of interdependent parts that relate to the accomplishment of an overall goal (von Bertalanffy, 1968). It entails a set of integrated and interacting organisational elements deliberately set-up to attain specific goals. Hoy (2019) contends that school organisations are open systems that adapt to changing external conditions to be effective and, in the long term, survive. Bush (2011) concurs and adds that there is a two-way interactive relationship between the school organisation and its external environment. The view that the school organisation is an open system continues to enjoy popularity in Educational Management, and Sociology of Education literature (Lunenburg, 2010; Owens & Valesky, 2011; Ballantine & Hammack, 2012; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). This suggests that, for us to understand the satellite primary school we must view it as an open system. True to the nature of open systems, school organisations are open and dynamic systems existing in and interacting with their environments. On whether the school organisation is an open or closed system, Meyer (1978:18 cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2013:9) argues, "The issue of open versus closed school system is closed on the side of openness." Echoing similar sentiments, Lunenburg (2010) says it is virtually impossible to envisage a school that is not interactive with its environment. In line with this view, I studied the satellite primary school type as an open system.

2.5.4 Organisational goals

The OST states that school organisations are goal-seeking open social systems that move in the direction of goal attainment (Rao & Narayana, 2008; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). The Goal Model reviewed in Section 2.3.1 concurs that school organisations are open systems, which strive to attain specific goals. One of the central goals of most education systems is to provide quality education to all learners. Zimbabwe's education system is goal-oriented as reflected in the Mission Statement of the MoPSE that commits all schools "to provide equitable, quality, inclusive, relevant and competence-driven infant, junior, secondary and non-formal education" (MoPSE, 2015:5). School organisations have set goals that reflect the purpose of their existence (Tripon & Dodu, 2011). The goals reflect the needs of the school's strategic stakeholders (Rao & Narayana, 2008; Owens & Valesky, 2011). The implication here is that school organisations do not function in isolation from their external environments as proposed by the CSA.

From the perspective of the OST, organisational goals are indispensable to organisational effectiveness and the provision of quality education. They enhance organisational effectiveness by stipulating the purpose of the organisation; directing the decision-making process; and influencing the formal organisational structure (Hoy & Miskel, 2013; Hoy, 2019). Organisational goals also specify organisational tasks; guide the allocation of resources; and provide the benchmarks for assessing the quality of an organisation's products and services (Rao & Narayana, 2008; Hoy & Miskel, 2013). By implication, schools without well-defined goals are not only purposeless and chaotic but also deficient in terms of quality education.

2.5.5 Elements of an open system

According to von Bertalanffy (1968), an open system consists of five integrated and interdependent elements, namely the external environment, resource inputs, transformation process, outputs, and feedback (Lunenburg, 2010; Ballantine & Hammack, 2012). **Figure 2.1** depicts the five elements of an open system. The literature on Models of quality education and School effectiveness research reviewed in the preceding sections identifies the same elements as the main dimensions of quality education. The OST goes further to identify feedback as another critical element and dimension of quality education. Section 2.5.11 discusses the notion of feedback in detail.

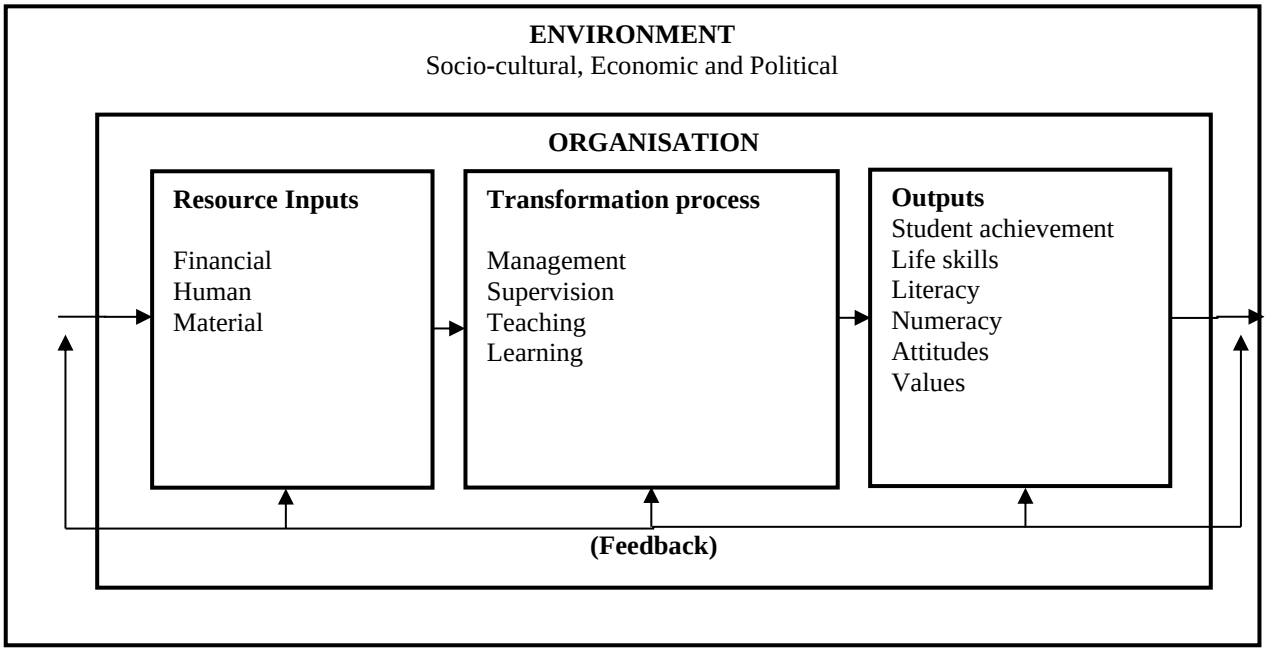
As depicted in **Figure 2.1**, an open system acquires resource inputs from its external environment, transforms them into outputs, and discharges the outputs into the environment (Lunenburg, 2010; Owens & Valesky, 2011). The OST emphasises the interdependence among the basic elements of a school organisation in the provision of quality education. If one element of an open system is mal-functional or deficient, a ripple goes through the whole school system, affecting the quality of the outputs (Ballantine & Hammack, 2012; Hoy & Miskel, 2013). In this respect, the study sought to establish the nature, quality and impact of transformation processes in satellite primary schools on the provision of quality education.

2.5.5.1 External environment

School organisations, including the satellite primary school, do not exist in a vacuum. They are located in a particular setting or environment. The organisation's external environment refers to the social, political, and economic forces outside the boundaries of the organisation that can either

enhance or impinge on organisational stability and efficiency (Scott & Davis, 2007; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). The external environment refers to everything that surrounds the organisation and influences it in some way. The OST argues that the school organisation's external environment not only provides resources for the organisation but also creates constraints and opportunities (Lunenburg, 2010; Ballantine & Hammack, 2012). This implies that the school organisation's external environment can enhance or impede the provision of quality education. Existing studies by Chakanyuka et al. (2009); Hlupo and Tsikira (2012); PoZ (2012); Jenjekwa (2013); Mangwaya et al. (2013); and Mavhunga and Mazodze (2014) among others covered the impact of context and resource input factors on the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. The study intends to plug the knowledge gap on the impact of pedagogical and management processes on the provision of quality education in the same school type.

Figure 2.2: Open Systems Theory



Source: Ballantine and Hammack (2012:22)

2.5.5.2 System boundary

Organisations have system boundaries that separate them from their external environments. The concept of a system boundary is conceptualised by Hoy and Miskel (2013) as the demarcation line for the admission of resource inputs into the system. The system boundary can either foster or

hinder the interaction between the organisation and its external environment. In a closed system, the boundaries are impermeable, and the system is isolated from its surrounding environment (Scott & Davis, 2007; Ritzer, 2015). In contrast, open systems have boundaries that are open to flows, inflows, and outflows of matter-energy and information (Owens & Valesky, 2011; Ballantine & Hammack, 2012). Schools are open systems with permeable boundaries that allow them to import resource inputs from their external environments for the provision of quality education.

2.5.5.3 Resource inputs

The OST observes that schools are open systems that acquire resource inputs from their external environments. The concept of resource inputs entails the materials, information, and energy flows into the organisation from the external environment (Lunenburg, 2010; Hoy & Miskel, 2013). School organisations utilise four kinds of inputs, namely: human resources, financial resources, physical resources; and information resources. According to Ballantine and Hammack (2012), human resources include school administrators, teachers, learners, and non-teaching staff. Financial resources refer to the funds the school organisation utilises to finance its operations. Physical resources encompass the equipment, facilities, raw materials, and infrastructure that the school organisation acquires from its environment. Information resources include knowledge, government mandates, curricula, goals, values, and other kinds of information used by the school organisation. To proponents of the OST, the quality of a school organisation's resource inputs determines the quality of its outputs (Lunenburg, 2010; Owens & Valesky, 2011; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). The Inputs Model reviewed in Section 2.3.2 holds the same view. Thus, resource inputs have a bearing on the quality of education a school provides. As noted earlier, existing studies on satellite schools in Zimbabwe adequately covered this area. The thrust of this study is on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools during the provision of quality education, which existing studies are silent about.

2.5.5.4 Transformation process

Another element of an open school system that the OST identifies is the transformation process. Ballantine and Hammack (2012) state that the transformation process entails those organisational functions that convert resource inputs into outputs. In school organisations, management, teaching,

and learning processes make up the transformation process. These processes transform learners into acceptable members of their society by equipping them with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that enable them to contribute meaningfully to national development (Lunenburg, 2010; Ballantine & Hammack, 2012). The OST emphasises that the quality of the transformation process of a school organisation is the central determinant of quality education (Ballantine & Hammack, 2012; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). The Process Model and ESR reviewed in Sections 2.3.3 and 2.4.2, respectively corroborate that quality transformation processes are the critical determinants of quality education. However, existing studies in Zimbabwe (PoZ, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013; Mutema, 2014; Tarisayi, 2017; Tarisayi & Manik, 2017) are generally silent about the nature and quality of the transformation process of the satellite primary school type in the provision of quality education. The study intends to close this knowledge gap.

2.5.5.5 Outputs

The OST notes that the school organisation processes the resource inputs that it acquires from its environment into outputs or outcomes. Outputs are the organisation's products and services (Ballantine & Hammack, 2012; Hoy & Miskel, 2013). In school organisations, outputs include student knowledge, achievement, skills, dropout rates, transition rates, as well as attitudes and values (Lunenburg, 2010; Ownes & Valesky, 2011; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). Proponents of the OST regard outputs as the indicators or benchmarks for assessing the quality of education a school organisation provides. The Outputs Model reviewed in Section 2.3.4 concurs and argues that measuring the outputs of education is the only significant way of assessing the quality of education. Existing studies (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012; PoZ, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013; Mangwaya et al., 2013; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014; Tarisayi, 2015) focused on how contextual and resource inputs variables are militating against the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. This study is different, it closes the knowledge gap on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools, and their impact on the provision of quality education.

2.5.5.6 Feedback

According to the OST, the school organisation receives feedback about the quality of education it provides to its clients. Feedback entails the information that the organisation receives from its

stakeholders concerning the quality of its services and products (Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). The feedback can be positive or negative. Information feedback of a negative kind assists the school organisation to correct its deviations from the set goals (Lunenburg, 2010; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012; Hoy, 2019). It provides the school organisation with self-correcting opportunities that enable it to adapt to the changes and demands in its external environment (Lunenburg, 2010; Ballantine & Hammack, 2012). In this way, the school can attain its goal of providing quality education. This study is a form of feedback intended to stimulate societal awareness of the knowledge gap regarding the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools. It is for this reason that I generated the findings and recommendations of the study from the perspectives of the research participants using open-ended sub-questions of the study stated in Chapter 1.

2.5.6 Justification of Open Systems Theory

Quality assurance scholars have acknowledged the utility of the OST in organisational analysis. According to Ballantine and Hammack (2012), the OST aids educators in conceptualising the school organisation, understanding how the small pieces fit together and see which pieces do not match. This holistic approach to organisational analysis avoids the problem of what Rao and Narayana (2008) refer to as the ‘components mentality’. The term ‘components mentality’ entails that to ensure the provision of quality education, you focus on some sub-systems of the organisation rather than the organisation as a whole. Tripon and Dodu (2011) concur that the OST enables one to scan the whole school organisation to establish its needs, the demands of the customers, and recommend strategies to enhance the provision of quality education. Feedback facilitates the holistic evaluation of the provision of quality education, focusing on the context, inputs, process, and outputs dimensions (Hoy & Miskel, 2013; Hoy, 2019). Regardless of the holistic nature of the OST, this study was interested in addressing the knowledge gap on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

Lunenburg and Ornstein (2012) recommend the adoption of the OST for analysing organisational effectiveness. The authors argue that the OST enables stakeholders to study all the elements of a school organisation in their four broad categories of environment, resource inputs, transformation process, and outputs. Ballantine and Hammack (2012) agree and add that the OST contributes to

the quick and accurate diagnosis of quality assurance problems, focusing the educator's efforts on those dimensions that require change and innovation. This study focused on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools so that they are adapted to enhance the provision of quality education in this school type.

Despite the potential benefits of the OST, it has its limitations. Owens and Valesky (2011) argue that the OST does not provide a way forward when constituents of a school organisation are mal-functional in the provision of goods and services to customers. Lunenburg (2010) concurs that the OST does not specify what to do when organisational analysis establishes factors militating against the provision of quality education. This implies that the OST gives little direct guidance regarding the actual improvement of quality education in schools. The study overcame this limitation by generating recommendations for enhancing the quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools from the perspectives of the research participants. Therefore, in the context of the OST, recommendations from the research participants are a form of feedback.

2.6 RATIONALE FOR QUALITY EDUCATION

In recent years, the provision of quality education has become the overarching goal of virtually all developing countries, including Zimbabwe. The priority given earlier to educational expansion and access is being replaced by policies that are calling for quality education (Reddy, 2007; Chinapah, Cars & Grinberg, 2013; UNESCO, 2015). Quality education is now the single most important factor that makes the difference between socio-economic development and underdevelopment in the 21st century (Steyn, 2001; Grant, 2017). Chinapah et al., (2013), aptly express the concern for quality education in Africa. They argue that it is only by providing quality education for all as a fundamental human right and striving towards attaining desired levels of mastery for all that the African continent can meet the challenges of the next century and take its rightful place in the international arena. Quality education has become the centre of focus in the education discourses of both developed and developing countries. Several factors have helped to place quality education on the priority list of the African education agenda. The factors provide insights into the need to provide quality education in satellite schools. The factors are discussed in turn below.

2.6.1 The quality-quantity dilemma

Quality education only became a centre of focus in the world from the late 1990s when the quest for quality education gained prominence at the international level (Alexander, 2008; Nsubuga, 2011; Chinapah et al., 2013). For most African countries that were emerging out of colonialism in the 1960 to 1980 period, the main focus was on the quantitative expansion of educational provision to accord Blacks access to education, which was restricted during the colonial era (Nsubuga, 2011; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). In the context of Zimbabwe, Gatawa (1988) observes that educational reforms in the early post-colonial period placed educational expansion and access rather than the quality of education on the political and education agenda. The focus on educational expansion and access was strengthened by the Jomtien World Declaration on EFA of 1990, which committed all nation-states, including Zimbabwe, to ensure universal access to and completion of primary education by all learners by the year 2000 (UNESCO, 2004). The emphasis was on educational access rather than the quality of education.

By 1990, Zimbabwe had met the EFA targets for universal access to primary education, and her literacy rate stood at 92%, which was the highest in Africa at that time (MoPSE, 2015). The then President of the Republic of Zimbabwe Robert Gabriel Mugabe commented on the high literacy rate in the country. He said, "Yes we are some 90% up there regarding literacy rate, but…it is not just literacy rate that we are aiming for…we would like to get the essence of what they call education at its highest level [quality education]" (MoPSE, 2015:1). The country should not solely focus on attaining high literacy rates, as literacy is a quantitative indicator of quality education. There is a need for Zimbabwe and other developing countries to shift their focus from the quantity to the quality of education.

Since the 1990 Jomtien World Declaration on EFA, the EFA debate has witnessed a broad shift of focus from exclusive preoccupation with access, enrolment, and retention to a greater interest in the quality of education (Alexander, 2008; Chinapah et al., 2013; Munene, 2015). Quality education as compared to access to education was relatively ignored in the EFA agenda (UNESCO, 2004; Nsubuga, 2011; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). The UNESCO GMR 2005 argues that just getting learners into school or educational access is not enough because the quality of education also warrants attention (UNESCO, 2004). Focusing on educational access at the expense of quality

education creates what Gatawa (1988) terms, the ‘quality-quantity dilemma’. There is a growing realisation that educational access and quality education are complementary rather than sequential elements (Nsubuga, 2011). While quality education is impossible without access, educational access without quality is often meaningless to those for whom access is made possible (Ginsburg, Moseley & Pigozzi, 2010; Pigozzi, 2010). Henceforth, quality education is a necessary complement to enrolment, access, and retention. Developing countries, including Zimbabwe, must strive to maintain the quality of education in their quest to expand educational access.

The UNESCO GMR 2013-2014 also raised the concern with quality education. It reports that of the 21 out of 85 developing countries that were studied, half the children were not learning the ‘basics’ (UNESCO, 2014). This suggests that 21 developing countries are not providing quality education. The report also reveals huge urban-rural disparities in learning with quality education skewed in favour of urban areas (UNESCO, 2014). The same scenario was also noted in Zimbabwe where satellite primary schools located in FTLRRAs are providing the least quality of education in the country (Jenjekwa, 2013; Mangwaya et al., 2013; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014; Tarisayi, 2015; Mwiinde & Muzingili, 2020). Quality education should be accessible for all, not just for children of the elites or those in towns. Indeed, it is for the poor and disadvantaged that quality education is required to enhance their upward social mobility and living standards (UNESCO, 2011).

The rising concern with quality education was strongly reflected in the protocols of the Dakar Framework for Action (DFA) 2000 and the Education 2030 Framework for Action. The DFA emphasises the need to address universal access to education and the quality of education simultaneously. Two of the goals of the DFA explicitly address the qualitative dimension of education. Goal number two aimed at ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in different circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities have access to free and compulsory primary education of good quality (UNESCO, 2005). Goal number six focused on improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence for all, so that recognised and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all; especially in literacy, numeracy, and essential life skills (UNESCO, 2005). The DFA expired in 2015.

The expiry of the DFA in 2015 culminated in the Education 2030 Framework for Action that builds on and continues the Education for All (EFA) movement. The Education 2030 Agenda focuses on increased and expanded access, inclusion, equity, quality, and learning outcomes, giving everyone an equal opportunity, and leaving no one behind (UNESCO, 2015). Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) number four of the Education 2030 Framework for Action commits all nations to "ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all" (UNESCO, 2015:4). The thrust of the Education 2030 Framework for Action is on inclusion and equity in the context of universal access and quality education.

Similarly, Zimbabwe's MoPSE in its Vision Statement seeks "to be the lead provider of inclusive quality education for socio-economic transformation by 2020" (MoPSE, 2015:1). From the Vision Statement, it is apparent that Zimbabwe has identified quality education as one of the determinants of its socio-economic transformation agenda. The prominence of quality education in international education discourse since 2000 is a reaction to the quantitative vision that prevailed during the 1990s when the emphasis was predominantly placed on expanding access to education (Tawil et al., 2012). Quality education is attracting unprecedented levels of interest in developing countries primarily because of countries' efforts to reverse the decline of quality in the context of the quantitative expansion of educational provision (Leu & Price-Rom, 2006; Ginsburg et al., 2010). It is imperative for the GoZ and the MoPSE to adapt the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools to enhance the provision of quality education in this school type.

2.6.2 Socio-economic development

Quality education is regarded as one of the determinants of socio-economic development. According to UNESCO (2011), quality education develops cognitive skills such as literacy, numeracy, and critical thinking that contribute to economic growth. It facilitates higher rates of innovation, production, and adoption of new technology by the labour force (Hanushek & Wößmann, 2010; Hanushek & Woessmann, 2012; Grant, 2017). This makes quality education an irreplaceable ingredient for socio-economic development, particularly in Third World countries that are generally underdeveloped. Expanding educational provision and improving school attainment has not guaranteed socio-economic development in many developing countries (Hanushek & Wößmann, 2010; UNESCO, 2011). What has been missing is attention to the quality

of education (Hanushek & Wößmann, 2010; Hanushek & Woessmann, 2012; Munene, 2015). In the same purview, the Presidential Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (PCIET) (1999) argues that the Eurocentric and academic curriculum that Zimbabwe inherited after the attainment of independence in 1980 led to the over-production of employment seekers rather than employment creators. Zvobgo (1999) concurs and adds that the rapid and phenomenal expansion of educational provision in Zimbabwe following the attainment of independence in 1980 outpaced economic growth, creating the problem of educated unemployed youths. An educational system that produces graduates who are not relevant to national development is devoid of quality. More so, it is a form of wastage in education.

There is growing realisation in developing countries, including Zimbabwe, that quality rather than quantity of education is a critical determinant of socio-economic development (Sifuna & Sawamura, 2010; Chinapah et al., 2013). In this regard, the former President of Zimbabwe Robert Gabriel Mugabe recommended the development of a new primary and secondary school curriculum framework with an emphasis on Science, Technology, and Entrepreneurship to stimulate socio-economic transformation in the country (MoPSE, 2015). Following this recommendation, Zimbabwe updated her primary and secondary school curriculum in 2015. The updated curriculum framework has a bias towards Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) (MoPSE, 2015). The research studies conducted in both developed and developing countries found that the quality of the labour force as measured by average scores in Mathematics and Science has a strong correlation with national economic growth rates (Hanushek & Wößmann, 2010; Hanushek & Woessmann, 2012). The MoPSE (2015) agrees and underscores that STEM education, which is part of the updated curriculum, inculcates skills that are vital for socio-economic development.

A causal nexus exists between quality education and wage earnings. In a study carried out in South Africa, Mocan (2014, cited in Biyase & Zwane, 2015) found that an increase in the quality and level of education exerts a simultaneous rise in an individual's wage rate. Research studies at the international level corroborate that there is a positive correlation among quality schooling, higher lifetime incomes, high productivity, and economic growth (UNESCO, 2004; Hanushek & Wöβmann, 2010; Hanushek & Woessmann, 2012; Grant, 2017). This observation makes it pertinent for developing countries to improve the quality of education they provide. Quality

education is indispensable for enhancing the incomes, living standards, and economic status of people residing in FTLRRAs. It is required to raise their livelihoods above the level of cheap farm labourers.

2.6.3 Technological pressure

The integration of technology in education is one of the pre-requisites for socio-economic development in the 21st century (Blignaut, Hinostroza, Els & Brun, 2010; Nikoloski, 2016). The ability of a nation to maintain a competitive edge in the 21st century depends mainly on the extent to which it utilises Science and Technology (Blignaut et al., 2010). The absence of technology in an education system results in an inadequate and non-transformative education system (Jenjekwa, 2013). An education system, which is deficient regarding the utilisation of ICT, is of poor quality. Such an education system has a high risk of producing technologically, irrelevant and redundant graduates. To avert this problem, Zimbabwe developed an updated primary and secondary school curriculum framework in 2015 that has a bias towards STEM (MoPSE, 2015). STEM education incorporates ICT, which has become one of the benchmarks of quality education in both developed and developing countries. I considered the availability and adequacy of ICT facilities and equipment in the exploration of the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

2.6.4 Universal completion of primary education

There is mounting evidence that quality education determines learner retention, improved attendance patterns, and universal completion of primary education (Gershenson, 2016; Brown & Kurzweil, 2018). There is also evidence of a positive correlation between the poor quality of education and high learner attrition rates (Hanushek & Wößmann, 2010; Ginsburg et al., 2013). The poor quality of education can influence learners to drop out and parents to withdraw their children from school. Olaniyan and Okemakinde (2008, cited in Sandvik, 2011) confirm this trend. They report that parents in many developing countries believe that education increases their children's chances of getting high paying jobs. In other words, some parents regard their children's education as an exit route out of poverty. If education fails to guarantee formal employment, some parents withdraw their children from school, leading to high attrition rates and low enrolments (Olaniyan & Okemakinde 2008 cited in Sandvik, 2011). The improvement in the quality of

education contributes to a reduction in repetition and dropout rates, as well as transition and completion rates at all levels of schooling (UNESCO, 2004; Gershenson, 2016; Brown & Kurzweil, 2018). Hence, quality education is a prerequisite to the universal completion of a full course of primary education by all learners. It becomes imperative to address the challenges in the transformation process of the satellite primary school so that learners enrolled in this school type complete a full course of quality primary education.

2.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter reviewed quality education literature related to the study. It looked at definitions and models of quality education, as well as school effectiveness research. Quality education is a relative and multi-dimensional concept that is difficult to define in universal terms. The study operationalised quality education as relevant and holistic education that equips learners with both cognitive and non-cognitive skills to function effectively and productively in their society. From the literature, it emerged that there are four main dimensions of quality education, namely context, inputs, process, and outputs. However, existing studies concentrated on the impact of context and inputs factors on the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. Henceforth, there was a need to explore the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools during the provision of quality education. Guided by the literature and research problem, I adopted the OST as the theoretical framework of the study. The chapter ends by discussing the rationale for quality education at the global level in general and Zimbabwe in particular.

CHAPTER 3

QUALITY OF EDUCATION IN SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter conceptualised quality education and presented the OST as the theoretical framework informing the study. This chapter reviews the literature on the quality of education in small rural schools. Most satellite primary schools in Zimbabwe fall under the category of small rural schools (PoZ, 2012; MoPSE, 2017). The literature is relevant for this study because it provides a historical and contextual background to the development of satellite schools. It also sheds light on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management practices in small rural schools. I reviewed the literature under the following themes: The notion of small rural schools; Quality of education in farm schools in colonial Zimbabwe; and The quality of education in satellite schools in Zimbabwe. The other themes are Factors affecting the quality of education in satellite schools; Pedagogical and management practices in small rural schools; and Quality education initiatives in Zimbabwe.

3.2 THE NOTION OF SMALL RURAL SCHOOL

Small schools are a common phenomenon in both developed and developing countries. Although there is consensus among researchers that most small schools are located in rural areas, there are contested views about their size (Edwards, 2016; Preston, Jakubiec & Kooymans, 2013). Edwards (2016) aptly expresses this problem when he says, what is considered a small school in one country may be regarded as an average or even a large school in another country. Dinham, Anderson, Caldwell and Weldon (2011) report that in Australia a small primary school is one with an enrolment of 100 learners or less. However, in some jurisdictions in Canada, a small primary school refers to one with an enrolment of 200 full-time learners or less (Edwards, 2016). This means that different countries have dissimilar benchmarks of small primary school size. The different benchmarks suggest that the notion of a small primary school is relative.

According to Ngcobo (2015), in South Africa, small rural schools are characterised by enrolments that are below the national average, few teachers, and teaching principals. This definition captures

the nature of the satellite school type, which is the focus of this study. The PoZ (2012) states that most satellite primary schools are mainly located in sparsely populated FTLRRAs in rural Zimbabwe. A satellite school is typically characterised by low enrolments, few teachers, a Teacher in Charge, and is an appendage of a nearby registered school (PoZ, 2012; Munjanganja & Machawira, 2014). As noted earlier, the term TIC refers to the teaching principal of a satellite primary school in Zimbabwe. The four selected satellite primary schools that participated in this study fall under the category of small rural schools.

3.3 QUALITY OF EDUCATION IN FARM SCHOOLS IN COLONIAL ZIMBABWE

This section reviews the literature on the quality of primary education in White-owned LSCFAs in colonial Zimbabwe. The only form of educational provision in LSCFAs was sub-standard and unregistered small farm schools built by white farmers to provide education to the children of their Black farmworkers (Khadhani & Riddell, 1981; Sithole, 1996). The satellite school type emerged in former White-owned LSCFAs following the FTLRP in 2000. The literature on farm schools provides the historical and contextual background to the prospects and complexities of providing quality education in satellite primary schools.

During the colonial era in Zimbabwe, many White farmers opted not to register their schools to have more control over resource allocation, curriculum standards, and the hiring of teachers (PCIET, 1999; Auret, 2000). The unregistered farm schools provided sub-standard education to the children of African farm labourers (The Human Rights Watch, 2003). The schools did not receive support from the government in the form of per capita grants in aid, qualified teachers, teachers' salaries, teaching resources, as well as supervision of curriculum implementation (Loewenson, 1991; PCIET, 1999). By implication, unregistered farm schools did not provide quality education. The Tate Commission assessed the quality of education in farm schools in 1925 and described the schools as the least efficient part of the colonial education structure (Atkinson, 1972). Three decades later, the Judges Commission of 1962 characterised registered farm schools as sub-standard and unregistered ones as being of no educational value (Government of Rhodesia [GoR], 1962). The findings of the two Commissions testify that unregistered farm schools provided the poorest quality of education in colonial Zimbabwe.

The unavailability of standard infrastructure at most unregistered farm schools negatively affected the provision of quality education. Auret et al. (2000) report that before 1980, farm school buildings were often renovated tobacco barns or sheds. Auret (2000) agrees and elaborates that in extreme cases, school buildings served a dual purpose as a school and beerhall on weekdays and weekends, respectively. We cannot expect a school that functions as a beerhall during weekends to be conducive for the provision of quality education. Farm schools were also characterised by a lack of equipment, facilities, books, stationery, laboratories, libraries, and standard classrooms (Loewenson, 1991; Sithole, 1996; PCIET, 1999). The teaching and learning process was held in poorly lit and poorly ventilated make-shift classrooms (Loewenson, 1991; Sithole, 1996). The make-shift classrooms and chronic shortage of instructional materials made unregistered farm schools unfavourable contexts for the provision of quality education. In tandem with the policy of separate development, the colonial government established boarding schools for White learners in LSCFAs (Atkinson, 1972; Challiss, 1982). In comparative terms, White learners received superior quality of education in LSCFAs than Black learners.

One of the subtle strategies that the White farmers utilised to ensure that Blacks were educated at lower levels was to provide lower than upper primary schools in mining and LSCFAs. Most farm schools for African learners provided no more than five years of schooling, and the facilities were sub-standard (Auret et al., 2000). Summers (2002) corroborates that a large percentage of farm schools in colonial Zimbabwe only went up to grade four or five. The result was that most African learners 'finished school' as young as 10 or 12 with work on the farm as the only available alternative (Auret, 2000; Auret et al., 2000). This strategy ensured an inexhaustible pool of semi-literate farm labourers for the White commercial farmers.

There was a critical shortage of trained teachers for all levels of formal African education in colonial Zimbabwe (Zvobgo, 1997; Nhundu & Makoni, 1999). In 1977, there were 1,195 untrained teachers in African schools, and most of them were teaching in farm schools located in White commercial farming areas (Khadhani & Riddell, 1981). The UNICEF (2004, cited in Murisa, 2010) observed the same trend and reported that during the colonial era in Zimbabwe, 33% of the teachers in farm schools were untrained compared to a national average of only 8%. The predominance of untrained teachers in farm schools compromised the provision of quality education.

The living and working conditions of teachers in registered farm schools and registered African rural schools were different. The government grants in aid towards teachers' salaries in registered farm schools were half that paid to teachers in registered African rural schools (Auret, 2000). Teacher turnover was very high in farm and mine schools mainly because of the poor living and working conditions (Challiss, 1982; Auret, 2000). However, the existing studies did not explore the impact of high teacher turnover on the provision of quality education in farm schools during the colonial era. This study discusses the impact of high teacher turnover on the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools in Chapter 5.

Another barrier to the provision of quality education in farm schools was the phenomenon of multi-grade classes. According to Loewenson (1991), multi-grade classes were a consequence of low learner enrolments coupled with inadequate classrooms and teachers. A single teacher would teach as many as three grades in the same classroom. Summers (2002) agrees that most Black learners attended rudimentary multi-grade farm schools. One limitation of these studies is that they did not establish how MGT affected the provision of quality education in farm schools. This study is different because, among other pedagogical processes, it explores the ramifications of MGT on the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

There were very few primary schools in White-owned LSCFAs before 1980, making the distance to school very long. According to Auret et al. (2000), some African learners in the former White-owned LSCFAs walked over seven kilometres to and from the nearest school. The learners arrived late for lessons and missed many concepts that affected their academic progress. The fatigue from walking long distances negatively affected the learners' concentration and participation in learning. Existing research studies cited in Section 1.2 also identify the long distance to school as one of the factors affecting the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

3.4 QUALITY OF EDUCATION IN SATELLITE SCHOOLS IN ZIMBABWE

This section reviews the literature on the quality of education in satellite schools. It conceptualises the satellite school type and discusses its emergence on Zimbabwe's educational landscape. The quality of primary and secondary education in Zimbabwe is mainly measured in terms of national examination results. In the context of the OST, examination results fall under the outputs indicators of quality education.

3.4.1 Conceptualisation of the satellite school

The satellite school type emerged in Zimbabwe's former White-owned LSCFAs following the FTLRP that commenced in 2000. Several Zimbabwean scholars have defined the concept of a satellite school. The purpose of this section is to review the existing definitions and develop an operational definition for the study. To Hlupo and Tsikira (2012), a satellite school is a budding school located in fast track resettlement areas, operating under the auspices of a registered school. The satellite school provides education to the children of the fast track land reform beneficiaries. According to Munjanganja and Machawira (2014), a satellite school is an unregistered school attached to a 'mother school' for administrative purposes. Tarisayi and Manik (2017) concur that a satellite school is an unregistered school that caters for the educational needs of the children of fast track land reform beneficiaries in FTLRRAs. It is part of a nearby registered school in terms of learners, staff, and administration.

From the definitions stated above, we can identify three characteristics of a satellite school. Firstly, the satellite school type emerged in FTLRRAs because of the FTLRP to provide education to the children of fast track land reform beneficiaries. Secondly, it is a school located in FTLRRAs failing to meet the MSFS to register with the MoPSE. Thirdly, the satellite school is an appendage of a nearby registered school in terms of learners, staff, and other administrative purposes. In the context of this study, the term satellite school entails an unregistered primary school type established in FTLRLAs following the FTLRP in 2000 to provide education to the children of the fast track land reform beneficiaries.

3.4.2 The establishment of satellite schools

According to the PoZ (2012), Zimbabwe's FTLRP that commenced in 2000 was unplanned and hastily implemented, culminating in the emplacement of over 170,000 Black Zimbabwean households in former White-owned LSCFAs. In the former White-owned LSCFAs, schools and other social amenities for Africans were historically very few or non-existent. There was a dire shortage of schools for African learners in previously White-owned LSCFAs areas because White commercial farmers did not regard it as their obligation to build schools for the children of their African farmworkers (PCIET, 1999; PoZ, 2012; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014). The massive and rapid emplacement of land beneficiaries in FTLRRAs where schools were inadequate presented

the GoZ with an urgent problem of how to provide education to the children of the fast track land reform beneficiaries.

The GoZ implemented the FTLRP in 2000 when the country was going through a decade of an economic meltdown that commenced in the year 2000 and ended in 2009 (Sadomba, 2011; Zhou & Zvoushe, 2012). Consequently, the government had no financial resources to construct conventional schools in FTLRRAs. Faced with this situation, the government did not have many options at its disposal, but to 'fast track' the provision of schools in FTLRRAs. The government authorised the use of make-shift teaching and learning infrastructure and promised to construct conventional schools within 10 years (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; PoZ, 2012). Existing infrastructure in the FTLRRAs such as farmhouses, tobacco barns, farmworkers' houses, storerooms, offices, garages, horse stables, and even pigsties was converted into teaching and learning infrastructure (PoZ, 2012). Where no infrastructure existed, the land beneficiaries erected pole, dagga, and grass-thatched structures so that their children could carry out their learning activities in some form of shelter (PoZ, 2012; Mutema, 2014; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014). These measures culminated in the establishment of 1,016 satellite primary schools, and 839 satellite secondary schools, totalling 1,855 satellite schools in Zimbabwe (MoPSE, 2017). Although satellite schools assured educational access for the children of the land beneficiaries, there are concerns about the quality of education this school type provides.

The GoZ allowed the land beneficiaries to establish satellite schools in FTLRRAs as a stopgap measure to enable it to construct standard schools within 10 years (PoZ, 2010). The schools do not meet the MSFS to qualify for registration with the MoESAC (MoESAC, 2013b) now the MoPSE. The MSFS stipulate that for a school to qualify for registration it should have at least two standard teachers' houses, a standard administration block, a standard classroom block, and adequate ablution facilities for teachers (MoESAC, 2013b; PoZ, 2012). The other preliminary registration requirements are sufficient toilet facilities for learners in the ratio of one squat hole: 20 girls and one squat hole: 25 boys, as well as a safe water source within 500 metres of the school campus (PoZ, 2012; MoESAC, 2013b). However, two decades after the commencement of the FTLRP in 2000, over 1,800 satellite schools are yet to qualify for registration with MoPSE (MoPSE, 2017). The schools are failing to meet the preliminary MSFS. This raises concerns about the quality of education the schools are providing. Unregistered schools are not entitled to per capita grants in

aid from the government (Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014). Henceforth, satellite schools are disadvantaged schools. In the absence of financial support from the government, satellite schools experience infrastructural and instructional resource challenges that hamper the provision of quality education.

For purposes of providing management support and paying salaries to teachers, MoPSE attaches each satellite school to the nearest registered school, which acts as the 'mother school' or 'parent school' (PoZ, 2012). With this arrangement, the staff and learners at the satellite school become part of the 'mother school' (PoZ, 2012). This effectively makes the satellite school an extension or appendage of the 'mother school'. The MoPSE also appoints a TIC for each satellite school to ensure effective school leadership and management (Mangwanya et al., 2012; PoZ, 2012). The TIC doubles as the head or principal of the satellite school and class teacher of one of the classes at the school. Scholars are generally silent about the impact of this type of school leadership and management structure on the provision of quality education in satellite schools. It is for this reason that one of the objectives of this study is to establish the nature and quality of management processes in satellite primary schools during the provision of quality education.

3.4.3 Examination pass rates in satellite schools

According to Mavhunga and Mazodze (2014), the primary output indicator of quality education in Zimbabwe's education system is high pass rates in public examinations. In line with this view, a school provides quality education if it registers high pass rates in national school examinations such as Grade 7, Ordinary Level, and Advanced Level. This is in tandem with the Outputs Model of quality education reviewed in Section 2.3.4 of this study. Available literature indicates that examination pass rates are very low in satellite schools. Chakanyuka et al. (2009) carried out a national survey of the quality of primary and secondary education in Zimbabwe. The survey revealed that the Grade 7 pass rate for remote primary schools and satellite primary schools in Matabeleland North Province of Zimbabwe was 10.5% in 2006 and 24% in 2007. Jenjekwa (2013) reports that the Ordinary Level pass rate for satellite secondary schools in Masvingo Province ranged from 0% to 10% from 2004 to 2010. The PoZ (2012) conducted a national survey of the quality of education in satellite schools and found out that in most provinces of Zimbabwe, the

Grade 7 pass rate for satellite primary schools ranged from 0% to 10%. The low pass rates suggest unique factors are militating against the provision of quality education in satellite schools.

Hlupo and Tsikira (2012) compared the Grade 7 pass rates of six satellite schools and their respective 'mother schools' in the Mwenezi District of Zimbabwe. **Table 3.1** presents the pass rates as percentages.

Table 3.1: Grade 7 Examination pass rates for 'mother schools' and their satellites

School	'Mother School'	Satellite School
A	44	16
B	36	18
C	50	45
D	46	24
E	40	17
F	34	24

Source: Hlupo and Tsikira (2012:607)

Table 3.1 shows that the Grade 7 Examination pass rates for both 'mother schools' and their satellites are low. However, the pass rate of each 'mother school' is higher than that of its satellite. While the pass rates of 'mother schools' range from 34% to 50%, those of satellite schools range from 16% to 45%. Although the pass rates are low in both settings, they are worse off in satellite schools. By implication, unique factors are contributing to the very low Grade 7 Examination pass rates in satellite primary schools.

Hlupo and Tsikira (2012) attribute the low Grade 7 Examination pass rates in satellite schools to poor infrastructure, lack of resources, and the low morale of teachers. They also associate the low pass rates with the long distances that learners walk to and from school as well as the generally negative attitudes of parents towards education. Mangwanya et al. (2012) argue that the Grade 7 Examination pass rates are very low, mainly due to inadequate instructional materials, particularly textbooks. The PoZ (2012) reports that the pass rates are low because of negative parental attitudes towards education, make-shift teaching and learning infrastructure, long distance to school, learner

absenteeism, and inadequate instructional resources. Munjanganja and Machawira (2014) concur and add that, most satellite schools do not qualify as Grade 7 Examination centres. As a result, learners sit for national examinations at another school that is an examination centre. They argue that the long distances that the learners travel to the examination centres and the change of environment negatively affect their performance (Munjanganja & Machawira, 2014).

The factors contributing to low Grade 7 pass rates in satellite schools reviewed in the preceding paragraph mainly fall under the context and inputs dimensions of quality education. There is a knowledge gap on the nature and quality of the transformation process of the satellite school and its impact on provision of quality education. The transformation process incorporates the pedagogical and management processes of a school organisation. To plug this knowledge gap, this study explored the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools and their impact on the provision of quality education.

3.5 FACTORS AFFECTING THE QUALITY OF EDUCATION IN SATELLITE SCHOOLS

Available literature indicates that several context and resource inputs factors militate against the provision of quality education in satellite schools. This section reviews the factors and exposes the knowledge gap that the study intends to close.

3.5.1 Lack of funding

One factor that militates against the provision of quality education in satellite schools is the lack of funding. According to Gonese and Makura (2003), from 1980 to 1991, the GoZ financed the establishment of resettlement infrastructure and support services before the emplacement of land beneficiaries under the Land Reform and Resettlement Programme (LRRP). The government established water and sanitation facilities, access roads, schools, clinics, and accommodation for teachers and nurses before resettling land beneficiaries (Gonese & Makura, 2003). The adoption of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) by the GoZ in 1992 marked a radical shift in the implementation of the LRRP. In line with the dictates of ESAP, the government cut expenditure on social services, including education (Zvobgo, 1999). It is for this reason, according to Gonese and Mukora (2003), that the government resettled the fast track land reform

beneficiaries in FTLRRAs before the establishment of basic social services such as water and sanitation facilities, access roads, schools, and clinics. The government promised to provide the basic infrastructure and support services within 10 years.

The GoZ transferred the burden of establishing schools and other social services in FTLRRAs to land beneficiaries as a cost-cutting measure (Zvobgo, 1999). This saw the emergence of School Development Committees (SDCs) on Zimbabwe's educational landscape. The government expects the land beneficiaries to pull resources together and construct standard schools for their children. The PoZ (2012) reports that the FTLRP beneficiaries do not afford to establish standard school infrastructure for their children in FTLRRAs because they are living in abject poverty. Tarisayi (2015), who argues that the state expects resettled communities to fund the construction of standard schools, but such communities are scratching for a living, expresses similar sentiments. The land beneficiaries do not have the financial and material resources to establish standard schools for their children.

The economic meltdown that Zimbabwe went through from 2000 to 2009 further constrained the government's capacity to fund the construction of satellite schools. The government budgeted for the construction of satellite schools from 2007 to 2009, but hyperinflation eroded the funds to the extent that they were insufficient to construct even a single classroom block (PoZ, 2012). As for the 2010 budget, the salary bill for parastatals under the MoPSE took up 91% of the government's allocation to education and a paltry 3% remained to fund infrastructural development (PoZ, 2012). The amount allocated to infrastructural development was too little to ensure the development of over 1,800 satellite schools in the country into standard schools. This is probably the reason why most satellite schools do not have proper infrastructure and adequate instructional resources two decades after their establishment in 2000.

3.5.2 Teacher qualifications and experience

Most teachers in both primary and secondary satellite schools are holders of the Diploma in Education (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; PoZ, 2012). Hence, they are suitably qualified to provide quality education. While the primary school teachers are suitably qualified, most of them are newly qualified (PoZ, 2012). Parents are concerned that the majority of the teachers in satellite primary schools are newly qualified with little teaching experience (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012; PoZ, 2012).

The limited teaching experience can have a negative bearing on the teachers' effectiveness during the provision of quality education.

3.5.3 Nature of classrooms

Make-shift classroom infrastructure is militating against the provision of quality education in satellite schools. The PoZ (2012) conducted a national survey on the quality of education in satellite schools. The study reveals that most satellite schools use dilapidated tobacco barns, vandalised farmhouses, as well as huts made of poles, dagga, and grass thatch as teaching and learning infrastructure. Existing literature indicates that the classrooms create serious complexities to the provision of quality education in satellite schools. Mavhunga and Mazodze (2014) held a case study of a satellite school in the Midlands Province of Zimbabwe and found that the make-shift classrooms at the school were too small, dimly lit, and poorly ventilated. The classroom infrastructure of this nature can expose the teachers and learners to asthma, tuberculosis, and the dreaded Covid-19. In this regard, the state of teaching and learning infrastructure in satellite schools is not ideal for the provision of quality education.

Hlupo and Tsikira (2012) carried out a study of satellite schools in the Mwenezi District of Zimbabwe. They found that some satellite schools use the farmhouses of former white farm owners as teaching and learning venues. The rooms of the farmhouses that the schools use as classrooms are very small. They pose challenges like overcrowding and poor ventilation that make teachers and learners susceptible to airborne diseases including Covid-19. Jenjekwa (2013) corroborates the problem of poor ventilation in his study of satellite schools that utilise disused tobacco barns as classrooms in Masvingo Province of Zimbabwe. The PoZ (2012) reports that, at some satellite schools where classrooms are non-existent, teachers conduct lessons in the shades of trees. This exposes the learners to cold, windy, rainy, and hot weather conditions that make it difficult for them to concentrate on learning. In the shades of the trees, noise from the local environment also distracts the learners' concentration on learning (PoZ, 2012). Overall, the make-shift classrooms are not conducive to the provision of quality education.

3.5.4 Nature of accommodation for teachers

In the absence of government funding, fast track land reform beneficiaries are not able to provide standard accommodation for teachers. A national survey of satellite schools conducted by PoZ

(2012) reveals that teachers reside in huts made of poles, dagga, and grass thatch; vandalised farmhouses; former farmworkers' houses; disused tobacco barns; and farm storerooms. In his study in Masvingo Province, Jenjekwa (2013) reports that teachers are accommodated in vandalised and dilapidated farmhouses with broken doors and windowpanes. Chakanyuka et al. (2009) carried out a rapid assessment of the quality of primary and secondary education in Zimbabwe. These authors report cases of teachers residing in huts without roofs and doors in remote rural schools and satellite schools. They also report instances of two or more teachers sharing very small single rooms. Such living arrangements are neither decent nor favourable for the provision of quality education. Hlupo and Tsikira (2012) rightly observe that there is high teacher turnover in satellite schools due to poor living conditions. This suggests that the deplorable state of accommodation is not ideal for the retention of teachers as well as the provision of quality education.

Accommodation for teachers is non-existent at some satellite schools, resulting in parents offering the teachers accommodation in the local community (PoZ, 2012; Mutema, 2014). Consequently, the teachers walk very long distances of 12km or more to and from the local community to the school daily (PoZ, 2012; Mutema, 2014). By the time the teachers reach the school premises, they will be exhausted. This negatively affects the quality of their instruction, and in turn, the quality of education they provide. There is a need for the government to provide adequate standard accommodation for teachers in satellite schools to enhance the provision of quality education.

3.5.5 Provision of instructional materials

Available literature indicates that instructional materials are in short supply or non-existent at some satellite schools. Chakanyuka et al. (2009) report that, in most provinces of Zimbabwe, the textbook-learner ratio is 1:15 for most satellite schools. Such a very high textbook-learner ratio makes it impossible for learners to have individual access to a textbook. Chakanyuka et al. (2009) also report cases of some classes in the schools that do not have even a single textbook for any subject. They observed that, at some schools, most learners do not have exercise books on writing assignments. At one satellite school, teachers take their learners outside so that they can practice writing on the ground because they do not have exercise books (Chakanyuka et al., 2009). It is very difficult for teachers to identify and address the learning needs of learners when they do not have exercise books for written assignments and continuous assessment.

Mangwanya et al. (2012) held a study of satellite schools in the Midlands Province of Zimbabwe and report cases of acute shortages of textbooks in all subject areas for both learners and teachers. At some schools, there is not even a single textbook for some subject areas. In the same province, Mutema (2014) notes that at some satellite schools, there is a critical shortage of textbooks to the extent that it is the teacher only who is privileged of having a textbook. If there is only one textbook for both teachers and learners, the teachers usually deprived the learners of individual exposure to the textbook for fear that it can be torn or stolen (Mutema, 2014). The severe shortage of textbooks denies learners opportunities for independent reading and content enrichment. The teacher becomes the only source of knowledge for the learners, a set-up that is not favourable to the provision of quality education.

In a study carried out in Masvingo Province, Tarisayi (2015) reports that teaching materials such as stationery, syllabi, and textbooks are deficient among satellite secondary schools. The absence of syllabi documents and textbooks limits the teacher's content depth of a learning area or subject. The satellite schools that Jenjekwa (2013) studied in the same province have no libraries or computer laboratories because textbooks and computers are respectively non-existent. The inadequacy and unavailability of instructional materials create complexities to the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

3.5.6 Provision of furniture

Another impediment to the provision of quality education in satellite schools is the unavailability of furniture. Hlupo and Tsikira (2012) observe that at some satellite schools, the teaching and learning process is conducted while learners are sitting on dusty floors owing to lack of desks and chairs. The learners do written assignments while sitting on dirty floors. The PoZ (2012) also report cases of satellite schools where there is no furniture. The teachers hold lessons while learners are sitting on bricks, timber blocks or the floor. Similarly, Chakanyuka et al. (2009) report that in most provinces of Zimbabwe, the problem of furniture at satellite schools is so acute that learners sit on planks set on stones or the floor. The authors conclude that the absence of furniture hampers the provision of quality education in satellite schools. Mutema (2014) laments the use of logs, bricks, and the floor as sitting places for learners at the satellite schools he studied in Masvingo Province. At some satellite schools, furniture is only adequate for Grades 4 to 7 learners, and all the other learners, that is, from ECD A to Grades 3 sit on the floor (Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014). The pain

from sitting on the floor distracts learners' attention from learning and becomes a barrier to the provision of quality education.

3.5.7 Provision of water and sanitation facilities

The problem of water and sanitation also militates against the provision of quality education in satellite schools. Chakanyuka et al. (2009) report cases of satellite schools where there are no toilets, and both teachers and learners use the bush. In a separate study, Mavhunga and Mazodze (2014) report a case of a satellite school where both the learners and teachers use only two almost full latrines. This set-up poses a health threat to teachers and learners. It also creates an unfavourable school environment for the provision of quality education.

Findings from the literature show that safe sources of drinking water are non-existent at some satellite schools. The PoZ (2012) reports cases of satellite schools where there are no reliable sources of drinking water, and learners bring safe drinking water from home. The teachers at the schools walk 15km to 25km to the nearest safe water source. There are also cases of satellite schools where teachers and learners drink unprotected water from dams and streams (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013). Drinking unsafe water makes the teachers and learners vulnerable to a host of water-borne diseases such as typhoid, cholera, and bilharzia. We cannot expect a school that is deficient in basic water and sanitation facilities to provide quality education.

3.5.8 Long distance to school

Most satellite schools are not centrally located, a situation that forces some learners to walk long distances of up to 20km to and from school daily (Chakanyuka, et al., 2009; PoZ, 2012). When learners walk long distances to school, they get exhausted before the commencement of lessons (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012). The fatigue they experience impacts negatively on their concentration on learning, participation in class, and academic achievement. The problem of the long distance to school has culminated in cases of prolonged learner absenteeism in satellite schools (PoZ, 2012). The long periods of absenteeism have a negative bearing on learners' academic achievement and progress. Thus, the problem of the long distance to school is one of the daunting barriers to the provision of quality education in satellite schools.

3.5.9 Availability of social amenities

The GoZ resettled the fast track land reform beneficiaries in FTLRRAs before the establishment of social amenities (Gonese & Mukora, 2003). Consequently, some satellite schools are in sparsely populated remote areas without access roads, clinics, police stations, and shopping centres (PoZ, 2012; Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012). Teachers in such schools are isolated from social and professional support, which is critical for the provision of quality education. The PoZ (2012) reports cases of teachers at some satellite schools in the Mwenezi District of Zimbabwe who walk 80 kilometres to access the nearest road network to the shopping centre. Similarly, Jenjekwa (2013) reports cases of teachers at some satellite schools in Masvingo Province who walk very long distances to the main road that leads to the nearby Growth Point to access services such as health care and shopping centres. These extremely difficult living and working conditions contribute to chronic teacher absenteeism and high teacher turnover in satellite schools (PoZ, 2012; Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012). The deplorable living conditions and the resultant high teacher turnover, have negative repercussions on the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

3.6 PEDAGOGICAL AND MANAGEMENT PRACTICES IN SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS

This section reviews the literature on pedagogical and management practices in small rural schools. The pedagogical and management practices include the phenomenon of teaching principals, MGT, Double-sessioning, as well as teaching and managing large classes. The literature provides insights into the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools and their ramifications on the provision of quality education.

3.6.1 Teaching principals

Studies by du Plessis (2014), Kgomo (2016), as well as Pendola and Fuller (2018), show that in most developing countries, teaching principals head small rural schools with multi-grade classes. A teaching principal entails a teacher who has a full teaching load in addition to school leadership and management responsibilities (du Plessis, 2014). To Clarke and Stevens (2009), a teaching principal is a school head who has dual roles in teaching and school administration. Put in other words, a teaching principal is a full-time teacher who also performs school leadership and management duties. In Zimbabwe, TICs double as the heads of satellite schools and full-time teachers (PoZ, 2012; Mangwanya et al., 2012; MoPSE, 2017). The impact of the TIC role on the

provision of quality education in satellite schools has not received attention in Zimbabwe. There is a need to explore the impact of the TIC role on the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

3.6.1.1 Duties and responsibilities of school principals

The school leadership and management roles of teaching and non-teaching principals are similar in many countries (Davids, 2011; Preston et al., 2013). In Zimbabwe, Non-Teaching Heads (NTSHs) and TICs or teaching heads perform the same school leadership and management roles. Vacancy Announcement No. 18 of 2019 spells out the duties and responsibilities of school heads in Zimbabwe (Public Service Commission [PSC], 2019). The central role of a school head, which applies to the TIC, is to provide overall management and operation of the school (PSC, 2019). The TIC performs this premier role concurrently with a full teaching load. The dual role of the TIC can have a negative bearing on the quality of pedagogical and school management processes in satellite primary schools.

The PSC (2019) classifies the duties and responsibilities of school heads in Zimbabwe into four basic categories. The first category is the administrative role, which involves organising or planning activities to ensure the effective and efficient running of the school. The administrative roles of the school head include developing the strategic plan, vision, mission, and goals of the school; preparing and implementing annual school budgets; and developing school timetables and calendars in consultation with staff members. The school head attends meetings; develops and implements orientation and induction programmes for teachers and learners; enrols learners, and assigns duties to teachers. Since TICs are full-time teachers, the instructional time for their classes is lost when performing school leadership and management roles. This raises concerns about the quality of education in the classes taught by TICs.

Curriculum management is another principal role of the school head. According to PSC (2019), curriculum management involves interpreting and implementing curriculum syllabuses. The other curriculum management responsibilities are classroom teaching, conducting lesson observations, tracking learner progress, and providing early intervention to learners with learning difficulties. Teaching principals have to balance classroom teaching with multiple school management responsibilities. A study conducted by Titus (2002 cited in Brown, 2010) in South Africa reports

that teaching principals are pushed more into managerial and entrepreneurial roles than the instructional role. Expressed differently, teaching principals spend more time performing school management responsibilities than teaching their classes. The limited time that teaching principals spend in their classes, has a negative bearing on curriculum coverage and the provision of quality education.

Some duties and responsibilities of the school head fall under the supervision and management role. The PSC (2019) states that the school head is obliged to supervise both staff and learners; organise and supervise national examinations; and monitor the general cleanliness of school grounds and buildings. The school head also evaluates and manages the performance of learners and teachers; serves as an ex-officio member of the School Development Committee (SDC); and maintains school records. All these roles add to the workload of the TIC and can compromise the quality of pedagogical and school management processes in satellite schools.

Another role of the school head is human and material resource management. According to PSC (2019), this role involves managing and utilising available human and material resources in the school. The school head ensures the safety and welfare of staff members and learners. It is the responsibility of the school head to co-ordinate and manage staff development programmes; offer professional advice to staff members; guide and counsel learners and staff members; and foster good relations among staff members (PSC, 2019). These roles may also leave TICs with little or no time to teach their classes.

In addition to official roles, there are emerging responsibilities of school heads, particularly in rural settings. Some of the emerging responsibilities are attending community functions, grief counselling, and the pastoral role (Kgomo, 2016; Pendola & Fuller, 2018). These responsibilities can also cut into the teaching principal's institutional and instructional time, militating against the quality of pedagogical and management processes in small rural schools.

3.6.1.2 Challenges confronting teaching principals

Leading a small rural school is not a straightforward matter because the small school is not a miniature version of a large school (Dinham et al., 2011). This section reviews the literature on the challenges that confront teaching principals in leading small rural schools. The literature sheds

light on the nature of pedagogical and management challenges that TICs meet in leading satellite primary schools.

3.6.1.2.1 Heavy workloads

Multiple and conflicting roles that cannot be executed thoroughly due to a lack of adequate time for any task overwhelm the teaching principals (Preston et al., 2013; Pendola & Fuller, 2018). The teaching principals experience work overload because they perform the teaching and school management roles simultaneously. Preston et al., (2013) note that while principals of large schools often delegate and share management tasks, this option is not afforded to teaching principals. They lack administrative support staff such as assistant principals, heads of departments, secretaries, and bursars to enable them to delegate some responsibilities (Preston et al., 2013; Pendola & Fuller, 2018). Henceforth, teaching principals experience work overload by performing the dual role of teaching and school management.

The heavy workloads of teaching principals can have debilitating effects on the quality of pedagogical and management processes in small rural schools. Kgomo (2016) explored the impact of teaching principals' heavy workloads on learner performance in small farm schools located in the Limpopo District of South Africa. It emerged from the study that due to multiple administrative duties, teaching principals are always absent from their classrooms. Consequently, they fail to complete the syllabuses of their classes, and the academic achievement of the learners is affected. Kgomo (2016) also found that teaching principals have limited time to effectively assess learners and offer individualised support. This challenge also leads to poor learner achievement in the classes taught by teaching principals. The study further reports that teaching principals experience stress and burnout due to heavy teaching workloads and administrative overloads. Newton and Wallin (2013) concur that teaching principals experience stress and tensions related to conflicting role demands and workload intensification. The stress, burnout, and tensions affect the teaching principal's effectiveness in performing teaching and school management roles.

In a study conducted in Namibia, Haingura (2014) found that teaching principals find it difficult to supervise and support teachers because they have full-time classes to teach. The inadequate supervision of teachers by teaching principals can have negative repercussions on the quality of

education in small rural schools. It shall emerge from this study how the multiple roles of TICs affect the quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

Studies by Mangwanya et al. (2012) and PoZ (2012) agree that teaching principals who are officially referred to as TICs head satellite schools in Zimbabwe. However, the studies focused on how contextual and input factors affect the quality of education in satellite schools. There is a dearth of studies on the impact of the TIC role on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite schools. It is for this reason that I decided to explore the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite schools during the provision of quality education.

3.6.1.2.2 Lack of professional preparation

Existing literature (Clarke & Stevens, 2009; Clarke & Wildy, 2010; Preston et al., 2013) indicates that there is a lack of professional principal preparation programmes in many developed and developing countries. According to Bush and Oduro (2006), in most African countries, there are no preparation programmes for new principals. Ministries of education and other responsible authorities often appoint successful teachers as school principals without any professional training or induction in school leadership and management. In the opinion of Bush and Oduro (2006), there is an assumption that effective and successful teachers will be good school principals even without professional training in school leadership and management. Murdock (2009) also noted the lack of professional preparation programmes for school principals in a study of teaching principals of small rural schools in Australia. The teaching principals who participated in the study conducted by Murdock (2009) indicated that they did not receive any professional training or induction in school leadership and management. Therefore, new principals acquire school leadership and management skills on the job by trial and error rather than through formal professional training (Clarke & Stevens, 2009; Clarke & Wildy, 2010). The lack of professional training limits the teaching principal's ability to spearhead the provision of quality education in small rural schools.

To enhance the quality of school leadership and management in both small and large schools, some countries have introduced preparatory programmes for new school principals. The preparatory programmes equip new principals with the knowledge and skills they require to effectively lead and manage schools (Bush & Oduro, 2006; Clarke & Wildy, 2010; Edwards, 2016). A study by

Clarke, Wildy, and Styles (2011) in Turkey and Western Australia reveals that preparatory programmes for new principals last for only two to three days. The duration of the preparatory programmes is too short to provide new principals with all the requisite school leadership and management knowledge and skills to lead schools effectively.

Furthermore, Clarke et al. (2011) observe that the programmes only focus on school leadership and management issues such as financial management, the duty of care, as well as occupational health and safety. They do not cover other critical skills such as leading and managing a school, as well as handling a class (Clarke et al., 2011). Most school leadership and preparatory management programmes are very general and not targeted to the unique leadership dynamics of a small school (Murdock, 2009; Clarke & Wildy, 2010). School leadership and preparatory management programmes of this nature do not provide new teaching principals with adequate knowledge and skills to effectively lead and manage small rural schools.

Developed countries such as the United States of America, England, and Scotland have more formal, extensive, and comprehensive school principal preparatory programmes (Edwards, 2016). The programmes adequately equip new principals with the theoretical and practical aspects of leading and managing a school. In England and Scotland, all new principals must complete the headship preparatory programme before they are appointed (Edwards, 2016). The two countries present a model of school leadership and preparatory management programmes that African countries can adopt in their quest to improve the quality of education in small rural schools.

There is a dearth of literature on school leadership and management programmes for school heads and TICs in Zimbabwe. The existing literature on satellite schools generally highlights the criteria used for appointing TICs. A national survey of satellite schools in Zimbabwe carried out by PoZ (2012) reveals that the first teacher deployed to a satellite school usually assumes the role of TIC without induction into school leadership and management. In a separate study of satellite schools in the Mwenezi District of Zimbabwe, Hlupo and Tsikira (2012) report cases of the MoPSE appointing the teacher who would have stayed the longest at the school as the TIC. There is a need for school leadership and preparatory management programmes for school heads and TICs in Zimbabwe to engender the provision of quality education in schools.

3.6.1.2.3 Time management

Teaching principals often fail to complete their instructional and institutional itineraries because of frequent interruptions (Starr & White, 2008; Kgomo, 2016). In this regard, teaching principals should carefully plan and manage their time so that they effectively execute teaching and school management roles simultaneously. In a study of teaching principals in South Africa, Kgomo (2016) reports that parents and other visitors who approach the school principal with school-related matters frequently disrupt the teaching activities of school principals. The teaching principals' daily schedules are interrupted to attend to learners' disciplinary problems that teachers would have failed to resolve. Hallinger and Murphy (2013) corroborate and add that, those teaching principals who begin the morning intending to conduct class observations often find themselves waylaid by learners, teachers, and parents with urgent problems that need their attention. Under such circumstances, the teaching principals fail to teach their classes and supervise teachers effectively. The inevitable result is the poor quality of education in small rural schools.

3.6.2 Multi-grade Teaching

The phenomenon of MGT is prevalent in small rural schools across the world (Little, 2005; Brown, 2010; Kivunja, 2014), and satellite schools in Zimbabwe are no exception (PoZ, 2012). The term MGT refers to a setting where a single teacher is responsible for teaching learners of different grade levels at the same time in the same environment (Joubert, 2010). This is like the definition proffered by Pridmore (2007), who contends that MGT is a situation in which one teacher teaches learners of two or more grade levels during one time-tabled period in the same classroom. Similarly, Mulryan-Kyne (2005 cited in Brown, 2010) conceptualises MGT as a case where one teacher at the same time teaches learners who are in different grade levels in one class. To Taole (2017), MGT describes the set-up where teachers teach simultaneously in the same classroom, learners in different grades. These definitions emphasise that MGT occurs in one classroom where a single teacher is responsible for teaching learners of two or more grades simultaneously. In the context of this study, MGT refers to the teaching of learners of two or more different grades in one classroom at the same time by a single teacher responsible for the grades.

3.6.2.1 Conditions contributing to the adoption of Multi-grade Teaching

The MGT pedagogical approach is a common phenomenon in both developed and developing countries. It is often associated with small rural schools located in remote and sparsely populated communities where there may be one, two, or three teachers offering a complete cycle of primary education (Little, 2005; Berry, 2010). Research has identified conditions or factors that influence education systems in various parts of the world to adopt MGT. Little (2005) classifies the conditions into two broad categories, namely necessity or choice. This means that MGT can be adopted either as a pedagogy of choice or necessity. The two conditions have a bearing on the quality of pedagogical transactions in multi-grade classes.

Available literature suggests that most developed countries adopt MGT as a pedagogy of choice. MGT is a pedagogy of choice when education stakeholders deliberately select it owing to the pedagogical advantages that it provides (Vithanapathirana, 2006). Little (2005 as cited in Brown, 2010) concurs that MGT is a pedagogy of choice when learners are organised in multi-grade classes rather than mono-grade classes for pedagogical reasons and as part of an education system's curriculum or pedagogic reform. Developed countries such as England (Little, 2006a) and Finland (Brown, 2010) have adopted MGT as a pedagogy choice to implement learner-centred pedagogical approaches. Little (2005) argues that if teachers in consultation with parents adopt MGT as the pedagogy of choice, then the pedagogical transactions in multi-grade classes are likely to be of good quality. The nature and quality of pedagogical transactions in multi-grade classes are one of the under-researched areas in the discourse of quality education in satellite schools.

Most developing countries adopt MGT out of necessity to ensure educational access to all children. According to Tambulukani (2004, as cited in Brown, 2010), in Africa, the adoption of MGT is mainly out of the necessity to increase access to education in less populated areas and understaffed schools. Juvane and Joubert (2010) corroborate that in the African contexts, MGT is often implemented as a necessity to address teacher shortages in rural hard to reach communities with small school enrolments. Berry (2010) shares similar sentiments. He states that in much of Africa, the major rationale for MGT is to increase access to a full cycle of primary education to learners in remote and sparsely populated areas. Tambulukani (2004) and Kivunja (2014) concur that Zambia established multi-grade classes to extend ample primary educational opportunities to low population areas. In Zimbabwe, the FTLRP, which commenced in 2000, compelled the

government to open satellite schools in FTLRRAs despite their low enrolments, resulting in the formation of multi-grade classes (PoZ, 2012). It is clear from the existing literature that most African countries adopted MGT out of necessity to attain universal access to primary education and the EFA goals. Vithanapathirana (2006) argues that in education systems where MGT is utilised as a pedagogy of need or necessity, multi-grade pedagogical practices are often of poor quality. Little (2005) concurs that if school organisations adopt MGT out of necessity, the pedagogical transactions in multi-grade classes are unlikely to be of good quality. There is a need to explore the impact of MGT on the quality of education in satellite primary schools.

3.6.2.2 Prevalence of Multi-grade Teaching

Brown (2010) claims that a large proportion of primary school teachers worldwide are involved in teaching several grade levels in one classroom throughout the school year. This suggests that MGT is prevalent in the educational systems of both developed and developing countries. Little (2006a) provides statistics on the prevalence of MGT in some developed countries. The author states that 25.4% of all primary education classes in the year 2000 in England were multi-grade classes, 29% in France, and 34% in Norway. Little (2006a cited in Brown, 2010) further states that 42% of primary school classes in Ireland were multi-grade classes in 2001. Therefore, MGT teaching is prevalent in developing countries.

The MGT pedagogical approach is also a common phenomenon in African countries. The Centre for Multi-grade Education reports that approximately 7,000 South African schools used MGT in 2009 (Joubert, 2010). Haingura (2014) reports that 40% of Namibian schools have multi-grade classes. The phenomenon of MGT is also prevalent in schools located in remote areas of many other Sub-Saharan African countries such as Zambia, Uganda, the Democratic Republic of Congo, South Sudan, and Sierra Leone (Kivunja, 2014). In Zimbabwe, the PoZ (2012) acknowledges the existence of MGT in satellite schools, but there are no statistics of multi-grade classes in the country. There are generally insufficient published statistics on the prevalence of multi-grade classes in most African countries (Brown, 2010). This makes MGT an invisible pedagogical approach at the administrative level in many African countries (Little, 2006a as cited in Brown, 2010). The invisibility of MGT at the administrative level in some African countries, including Zimbabwe, has negative ramifications on the quality of education in multi-grade classes.

3.6.2.3 Factors affecting the implementation of Multi-grade Teaching

Multi-grade classes pose numerous challenges and difficulties to mono-grade teachers. This section reviews the literature on factors that militate against the effective implementation of MGT in small rural schools. The literature highlights the nature of pedagogical and management challenges that MGT poses to TICs and teachers in multi-grade settings.

3.6.2.3.1 Lack of multi-grade curricula and policies

One of the barriers to the effective implementation of multi-grade pedagogy in most developing countries is the absence of policies and curricula to support and guide teachers in multi-grade settings. Little (2005) reports that regardless of the prevalence of multi-grade classes in many developing countries, national school policies and curricula are produced for the mono-grade classroom. Textbooks, teachers' guides, and other instructional materials are prepared for mono-grade classes. This means that teachers teaching multi-grade classes rely on policies and curricula designed for mono-grade classes. Joubert (2010), who notes that the policy documents of South Africa's Department of Education make no mention of multi-grade schools, expresses similar sentiments. Taole and Mncube (2012) corroborate that a national multi-grade curriculum for primary and secondary education is non-existent in South Africa's education system. Therefore, in South Africa, multi-grade classes and their teachers are dealt with within the confines of the mono-grade curriculum framework.

The absence of multi-grade pedagogy in national school policies and curricula to guide and support the implementation of multi-grade pedagogy is not unique to South Africa. Even in Zambia, where MGT was formally introduced in several schools, the only curriculum available is the national primary school curriculum designed for mono-grade classes (Tambulukani, 2004; Kivunja, 2014). The same scenario exists in Namibia, where Haingura (2014) reports that the primary school curriculum is planned, organised, and implemented according to the mono-grade curriculum regardless of the existence of multi-grade classes. The implementation of a mono-grade curriculum in multi-grade settings can affect the quality of education in multi-grade classes. In this regard, Taole and Mncube (2012) urge departments of education to produce curricula specifically designed for multi-grade classes to improve the quality of education in multi-grade classes. There is a need to establish the nature of challenges teachers and TICs in satellite schools experience in

adapting the mono-grade curriculum to multi-grade contexts and the repercussions of those challenges on the provision of quality education.

3.6.2.3.2 Lack of Multi-grade Teaching pre-service training

Another barrier to the effective implementation of MGT in most countries is the absence of multi-grade pedagogy in teacher development programmes. Existing literature suggests that this problem is quite prevalent in African countries. Titus (2004) reports that in many parts of Africa, most teachers teaching in multi-grade settings are either untrained or only trained in mono-grade pedagogy. Little (2006b) concurs that most African countries continue to train mono-grade teachers despite the prevalence of multi-grade classes in their educational systems. Similarly, Joubert (2007) notes that MGT is not specifically addressed in the teacher development programmes of most African countries. African governments tend to focus on preparing mono-grade teachers, leaving the development of multi-grade teachers to local initiatives such as workshops and other *ad hoc* sessions (Little, 2006b; Joubert, 2007). As a result, mono-grade teachers are not professionally prepared to teach and manage multi-grade classes.

According to Joubert (2010), most teachers teaching multi-grade classes in South Africa are only trained in mono-grade pedagogy. In a study conducted in Uganda and Zambia, Kivunja (2014) also notes that the teachers teaching multi-grade classes lack professional training in MGT. Haingura (2014) observed the same trend in Namibian primary schools. This means that the pre-service training that the teachers undergo does not provide them with the requisite skills and knowledge to teach and manage multi-grade classes (Lingam, 2007). Put in other words, during their pre-service training, the teachers are neither exposed to the theoretical nor practical aspects of multi-grade pedagogy. It is quite evident that mono-grade teachers are not professionally prepared to teach and manage multi-grade classes.

There is a taken-for-granted assumption that mono-grade teachers can adapt to multi-grade pedagogy without necessarily undergoing pre-service or in-service training in multi-grade pedagogy (Taole & Mncube, 2012). By implication, ministries of education and other teacher development stakeholders expect mono-grade teachers to adapt to MGT on their own without pre-service or in-service training. Kivunja and Sims (2015) refute this assumption. They argue that MGT is a specialised pedagogy with a demanding conceptual architecture that requires intensive

pre-service or in-service training for teachers. Kivunja and Sims (2015) emphasise that mono-grade teachers experience challenges in coping with multi-grade classes owing to a lack of professional training in multi-grade pedagogy. For mono-grade teachers to be effective in their teaching tasks, they need professional training in multi-grade pedagogy (Brown, 2010). A shift from a single focus on preparing all teachers for mono-grade teaching, to developing versatile teachers who can handle both mono-grade and multi-grade classes is required in African countries.

3.6.2.3.3 Adaptation of mono-grade curricula to multi-grade settings

According to Little (2005), national primary school curricula in most countries are premised on a mono-grade structure. This compels teachers in multi-grade settings to adapt mono-grade curricula to the needs of multi-grade classes. Existing literature indicates that teachers who are not professionally trained in multi-grade pedagogy experience challenges in adapting mono-grade curricula to multi-grade settings (Nawab & Baig, 2011; Taole, 2014c; du Plessis & Subramanien, 2014). Mono-grade teachers need professional training in strategies of adapting mono-grade curricula to multi-grade settings.

One curriculum adaptation strategy, which teachers can utilise to adapt mono-grade school curricula within multi-grade settings, is the quasi-mono-grade approach (Brown, 2010). In this approach, the teacher prepares separate teaching plans for each grade constituting the multi-grade class and teaches the grades separately in the same classroom (Juvane, 2005; Brown, 2010). The quasi-mono-grade approach poses challenges to teachers who lack training in multi-grade pedagogy. The teachers complain that producing separate lesson plans for each grade is not only time consuming and exhausting, but also results in ineffective teaching and learning (Ames-Romello, 2002 as cited in Brown, 2010). As a result, most mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings plan and teach the curriculum content of one grade (Mansoor, 2011; Taole & Mncube, 2012; Haingura, 2014). Consequently, the curriculum content of the other grade or grades is not covered, and the learners are disadvantaged.

Several studies corroborate that teachers teaching multi-grade classes usually prepare one lesson plan based on the curriculum content of one grade. In their study of MGT in South Africa, Taole and Mncube (2012) report that in multi-grade settings, most teachers have single lesson plans and focus on the curriculum content of one grade level. A study by Haingura (2014) in Namibia also

reveals that teachers teaching multi-grade classes only plan for one grade. In a study in Pakistan, Mansoor (2011) also verifies that teachers who lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy teach the curriculum content of one grade in the multi-grade class. It is quite clear from the reviewed studies that most mono-grade teachers teaching multi-grade classes plan and teach the curriculum content of one grade at the expense of the other grade or grades. There is a need to explore how this pedagogical approach affects learners and the provision of quality education in multi-grade settings.

The other curriculum adaptation strategy, which is mainly utilised by teachers in multi-grade settings, is the differentiated whole-class approach. In this approach, the teacher plans and presents lessons with the same general topic or theme to all grades simultaneously, considering the competency outcomes of each grade when assessing the learners (Brown, 2010). Taole (2014a) concurs that the differentiated whole-class approach involves the teacher identifying broad areas of similarity in curriculum content that they teach to all the grades at the same time. Available literature indicates that teachers who are not trained in multi-grade pedagogy experience challenges in implementing the differentiated whole-class approach. In a study conducted by Taole (2017) in South Africa, teachers indicated that the approach is challenging because it requires the teacher to know the curriculum content of all the grades they will be teaching. The knowledge of the content of both grades is necessary to enable the teacher to identify similar and different curriculum content across the grades. Teachers also experience the problem of how to plan and teach curriculum content that is peculiar to each grade (Taole, 2017). A study conducted by Haingura (2014) in Namibia notes similar challenges. These challenges compel teachers who are not trained in multi-grade pedagogy to plan and teach the curriculum content of one grade in a multi-grade setting (Haingura, 2014; Taole, 2017; Siririka, 2018). The nature and quality of multi-grade pedagogy in satellite schools is one under-researched area that needs attention.

3.6.2.3.4 Lack of support from education officials

Small rural schools with multi-grade classes are often located in remote and difficult to reach areas. As a result, teachers teaching in such settings usually receive little or no support from school inspectors (Berry, 2010). Studies carried out in South Africa consistently indicate that teachers and teaching principals in multi-grade schools do not receive any support from curriculum advisors on MGT (du Plessis & Subramanien, 2014; Taole, 2014b; Gichuhi, 2015; Mulaudzi, 2016). This

problem is not peculiar to South Africa. It was also noted in Namibia (Haingura, 2014; Siririka, 2018) as well as in Uganda, Senegal, and The Gambia (Mulkeen & Higgins, 2009). Without support from education officials, teachers and TICs in multi-grade contexts fend for themselves regarding multi-grade pedagogy.

Existing literature reveals that during school inspections and workshops, school inspectors often focus on assisting mono-grade teachers, leaving out multi-grade teachers (Mulkeen & Higgins, 2009; Mulaudzi, 2016). The school inspectors are reluctant to assist mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings because they also lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy (Mulaudzi, 2016). Therefore, there is no one to guide teachers and teaching principals on the implementation of MGT. Due to a lack of support, the teachers get frustrated, and the quality of their instruction is affected negatively (Mulkeen & Higgins, 2009; Mulaudzi, 2016). For children to learn effectively in multi-grade contexts, teachers need to be well trained and supported, well resourced and hold positive attitudes towards MGT (Little, 2005). This is only possible if teachers, teaching principals, and school inspectors receive professional training in multi-grade pedagogy.

Research studies in Zimbabwe reveal that school inspectors do not frequently visit satellite schools due to the unavailability of vehicles, financial constraints, and inaccessible roads (Jenjekwa, 2013; PoZ, 2012). For instance, Jenjekwa reports that school inspectors had not supervised the satellite schools that he studied for two years. The main limitation of these studies is that they did not explore how the lack of supervision militates against the provision of quality education in the schools. To address this gap knowledge this study focused on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools during the provision of quality education.

3.6.2.3.5 Lack of support from teaching principals

One of the roles of teaching principals is to provide pedagogical and class management support to teachers in multi-grade settings. The multi-grade teachers need support regarding planning, classroom management and organisational skills, as well as teaching strategies (Gasa, 2016). Expressing similar sentiments Haingura (2014) says the support that the teachers need ranges from ordinary advice on how to implement MGT effectively to staff development workshops on multi-grade pedagogy. The multi-grade teaching support that the teaching principals offer to the teachers in multi-grade settings is often in the form of class visits coupled with feedback (Brown, 2010;

Haingura, 2014). The support improves the confidence and effectiveness of mono-grade teachers in handling multi-grade classes. However, available literature indicates that the teachers who teach multi-grade classes generally lack support from teaching principals. The teaching principals are usually not able to offer support to multi-grade teachers because, in addition to administrative duties, they are full-time classroom practitioners (du Plessis, 2014; Mulaudzi, 2016). Another factor that makes it difficult for teaching principals to support teachers who teach multi-grade classes is that they also lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy (Lingam, 2007; Gasa, 2016). Therefore, the lack of professional training in multi-grade pedagogy on the part of school inspectors, teaching principals, and teachers is a barrier to the effective implementation of MGT is small rural schools.

Research studies in Zimbabwe (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012; PoZ, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013; Mangwaya et al., 2013; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014; Tarisayi, 2015) did not explore whether TICs offer MGT support to teachers. The main reason for this knowledge gap is that the existing studies primarily focused on the impact of contextual and resource inputs challenges on the provision of quality education in satellite schools. This has created a knowledge gap on the nature and quality of MGT in satellite schools.

3.6.2.3.6 Timetabling for multi-grade classes

Timetabling for multi-grade classes is another challenge that confronts teachers who lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy. Evidence from existing literature suggests that in some countries, multi-grade classes follow the same teaching timetables prescribed for mono-grade classes. In separate studies in Namibia, Haingura (2014) and Siririka (2018) corroborate that the duration of a single lesson is similar for both mono-grade and multi-grade classes. Taole and Mncube (2012) as well as du Plessis and Subramanien (2014) note the same scenario in South Africa. They report that teachers use the same amount of lesson time used in mono-grade classes to teach different grades. This means that the teacher shares the time allocated for one lesson in the mono-grade class equally between or among grades making up a multi-grade class. Hence, the teaching timetables are structured in a way that does not accommodate multi-grade pedagogy. In other words, the teachers handle multi-grade classes as mono-grade classes in terms of timetabling.

The equal allocation of teaching and learning time in mono-grade and multi-grade classes creates complexities to the implementation of MGT. One challenge that multi-grade classes experience is insufficient teaching and learning time. Due to time constraints, some subjects are not allocated their requisite teaching time while others are not taught (Haingura, 2014). This compromises curriculum coverage in multi-grade classes (Taole & Mncube, 2014). Owing to time constraints, some teachers fail to attend to the individual needs of learners (Haingura, 2014; Gasa, 2016). In a study carried out in Uganda and Zambia, Kivunja (2014) corroborates that time constraints make it difficult for teachers to cover the curricula for the different grades in multi-grade classes. As a result, some teachers teach examinable learning areas only. Therefore, timetabling for multi-grade classes is another area that needs attention in the discourse of the nature and quality of MGT in satellite schools.

3.6.2.3.7 Grade combinations in multi-grade classes

Available literature (Lingam, 2007; Kivunja, 2014; Taole, 2014b) shows that some grade combinations in multi-grade classes pose complexities to the provision of quality education. A study conducted by Taole (2014b) in South Africa identifies two problematic grade combinations. One combination was of Grade R learners who learn informally through play and Grade 1 learners who should be taught formally. This creates problems for teachers because the Grade R curriculum cannot be integrated with the Grade 1 curriculum (Taole, 2014b). The participants in Taole's (2014b) study also indicated that they are failing to handle the combination of Grade 3 and Grade 4 learners who are taught using different languages. Grade 3 learners are taught in their home language, while Grade 4 learners are taught in English. Such grade combinations create complexities to the provision of quality education, particularly to teachers who lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy.

Kivunja (2014) noted another problematic grade combination in his study of MGT in Uganda. He reports that Grade 5 and 6, which are non-examinable grades, are combined with Grade 7, which is an examinable Grade. The combination of an examinable and non-examinable grade is corroborated by Lingam (2007) in a study of MGT in Fiji. Kivunja (2014) and Lingam (2007) agree that examination pressure forces the teacher to focus on teaching the curriculum content of the examination class. Consequently, the curriculum content of the non-examinable grade is not

covered. This pedagogical practice can create learning gaps among learners in the non-examinable grade that compromise their mastery of concepts and academic achievement.

Existing studies on satellite schools in Zimbabwe (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012; PoZ, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013; Mangwaya et al., 2013; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014; Tarisayi, 2015) did not focus on grade combinations in multi-grade classes and their impact on the provision of quality education. This is another grey area, which the current study covered in its exploration of the prospects and complexities to the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

3.6.2.3.8 Instructional strategies

The quality of MGT also depends upon the utilisation of effective instructional strategies by teachers. Brown (2010) states that effective instructional strategies in multi-grade settings are those that increase the level of student independence and co-operative group work. Scholars identify three effective MGT instructional strategies. These are peer tutoring, in which learners act as teachers for each other; co-operative group work, which involves small groups engaging in collaborative tasks; and individual learning programmes, which involve the learner in self-study (Kyne, 2005 as cited in Brown, 2010). Mulkeen and Higgins (2009), who recommend self-managed learning, small group learning, and peer support as effective instructional strategies in multi-grade contexts, express similar sentiments. The recommended multi-grade instructional strategies are learner-centred. Berry (2010) posits that learner-centred multi-grade pedagogical approaches change the role of the teacher from being the 'giver of information' to the facilitator of learning. Learner-centred pedagogical approaches are emphasised in multi-grade settings. They ensure that the time learners spend away from the teacher when the teacher utilises the quasi-monograde approach is spent productively (Berry, 2010; Brown, 2010). Therefore, learner-centred pedagogical approaches are critical for effective teaching and learning in multi-grade classes.

Lingam (2007) conducted a study in Fiji and found that the lack of training in multi-grade pedagogy influences teachers in multi-grade contexts to employ transmissive approaches, particularly the lecture method. The same challenge was noted in Uganda and Zambia (Kivunja, 2014), and South Africa (Mulaudzi, 2016). The reviewed studies concur that the lack of professional training in MGT approaches compels teachers to employ teacher-centred strategies that are not ideal for the provision of quality education in multi-grade classes. It shall emerge from

the study whether mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings utilise teacher-centred or learner-centred approaches. There is a need to establish the impact of the pedagogical approach they employ on the provision of quality education in multi-grade classes.

3.6.2.3.9 Instructional materials

Successful MGT depends on adequate supplies of instructional materials that support individual and group-based learning (Little, 2005). Instructional materials of this nature are essential in multi-grade contexts where learners spend more time in individual and group tasks than teacher-directed learning activities. Adequate instructional materials enable multi-grade teachers to spend more time working with some groups while other groups work alone, in pairs or small groups (Little, 2005; Mulkeen & Higgins, 2009). Textbooks or workbooks with a self-study element and a self-correction key are more suitable for multi-grade settings (Little, Pridmore, Bajracharya & Vithanapathirana, 2007; Berry, 2010). It is worth noting that the instructional materials recommended for multi-grade classes are learner-centred and interactive to facilitate individual and group-based learning practices.

Instructional materials for multi-grade settings in most countries are premised mono-grade pedagogy. According to Berry (2010), the instructional materials utilised in multi-grade settings are written for the mono-grade classroom. They are produced as grade-level textbooks designed to be delivered to the learner by the teacher. The mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings may experience challenges in adapting the mono-grade instructional materials to multi-grade settings.

In a study carried out in South Africa, Taole and Mncube (2012) reveal that learners in multi-grade classes use the same textbooks used in mono-grade classes. Similarly, none of the schools studied by Siririka (2018) in Namibia had textbooks suitable for MGT. In the context of Zimbabwe, researchers note that there is an acute shortage of textbooks in satellite schools (PoZ, 2012; Mangwanya et al., 2012; Mutema, 2014). However, the researchers did not establish the suitability of the available textbooks for multi-grade classes. Further research is required on the nature of the textbooks and their impact on the provision of quality education in multi-grade classes.

3.6.2.3.10 Learner assessment

Literature indicates that mono-grade teachers experience challenges in assessing learners in multi-grade classes. The national learner assessment and record-keeping systems in most countries are designed for mono-grade classes (Hargreaves 2001, as cited in Brown, 2010). Teachers who lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy must adapt learner assessment and record-keeping systems designed for mono-grade classes to multi-grade classes. The teachers should engage in multi-level assessment of learners' progress against prescribed syllabus outcomes and maintain separate assessment records for each grade (Taole, 2017). Hargreaves (2001 as cited in Brown, 2010) echoes similar sentiments. The authors concur that multi-grade settings lend themselves to assessment systems that recognise individual differences in learning, rather than treating all learners as if they are at the same level. They emphasise the need for separate learner assessment tasks and record books for the different grades constituting a multi-grade class.

A study of MGT conducted by Taole (2014a) in South Africa found that multi-grade teachers assess learners according to the stipulated learning outcomes of their grade levels and maintain separate assessment records for each grade. Mulaudzi (2016) conducted a study in the same country and corroborated this practice. Participants in Mulaudzi's study indicated that assessing learners separately and maintaining separate records is not only time consuming, but also increases the teacher's workload (Mulaudzi, 2016). There is also a need to establish the learner assessment and record-keeping practices employed by multi-grade teachers in satellite schools and their impact on the provision of quality of education.

3.6.2.3.11 Teachers' perceptions of Multi-grade Teaching

Available literature in developing countries suggests that the perceptions of teachers towards MGT are generally negative. Suzuki (2004 in Brown, 2010) found that 50 out of 56 teachers with experience of MGT in Nepal hold negative perceptions towards such classes. The teachers indicated that multi-grade classes present them with more pedagogical challenges than mono-grade classes. From the study, Suzuki (2004 in Brown, 2010) concludes that the lack of professional training in multi-grade pedagogy influences teachers to perceive MGT as more demanding than mono-grade teaching. A study by Little (2005) in the Peruvian Amazon, reveals that mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings regard the mono-grade class as the desirable norm and the multi-

grade class as a 'second class' necessity. The study concludes that the lack of professional training in multi-grade pedagogy influences mono-grade teachers to hold negative attitudes towards multi-grade classes. The negative perceptions that mono-grade teachers take to the multi-grade settings affect the quality of their instruction (Brown, 2010) and, in turn, the provision of quality education.

The perceptions of mono-grade teachers towards MGT are generally negative in the African context. Mulkeen and Higgins (2009) report that in Uganda, Senegal, and The Gambia, the perception that MGT is more demanding and stressful than mono-grade teaching influences teachers to hold negative perceptions towards multi-grade classes. Joubert (2010) found similar findings in a study of MGT in South Africa. The author emphasises that teachers perceive MGT as demanding and complex because it requires greater effort regarding planning, curriculum adaptation, and class management. Joubert (2010) adds that the remoteness of multi-grade schools in South Africa, coupled with a lack of pedagogical resources and poor living conditions, contribute to negative teacher attitudes towards MGT. For the same reasons, most teachers in South Africa view mono-grade teaching as the 'normal' way of organising classes and MGT as an unavoidable 'nuisance' (Berry, 2010). Such attitudes can have a negative bearing on teachers' quality of instruction in multi-grade classes. There is also a need to establish the attitudes of mono-grade teachers in satellite schools towards multi-grade classes and the impact of those attitudes on the provision of quality education.

3.6.2.3.12 Lack of support from parents

Support from parents is one of the pre-conditions for the provision of quality education. Small rural schools with multi-grade classes are usually located in remote rural areas where they highly depend on parental support for their financial, resource, and infrastructural needs (Mulkeen & Higgins, 2009). By implication, for the small schools to be successful, they must be supported by parents. Findings from literature, however, show that small rural schools often receive little or no support from parents. Some researchers hold the view that parents tend not to support small rural schools in their communities because they do not see the value of education for their children (Berry, 2010; PoZ, 2012; Mutema, 2014). Other researchers reject this view. According to du Plessis and Subramanien (2014), poverty, long working hours, low wages, and low levels of education force some parents not to support their schools. Kivunja (2014) corroborates and elaborates that small rural schools are usually located in poor communities where parents are too

busy earning a living, resulting in them not having time or money to support the school. From the reviewed studies, it appears as if the lack of parental support is more associated with poverty and time constraints owing to long working hours than negative attitudes towards education.

Researchers also identify negative parental attitudes towards MGT as another factor that influences parents to be reluctant to support small rural schools with multi-grade classes. Parents may not support the presence of MGT in schools in their communities because they perceive MGT as a 'second-rate' or the inferior option to mono-grade teaching (Kivunja, 2014; Siririka, 2018). UNESCO (2015) concurs and adds that some parents regard multi-grade classes as a stopgap measure that they should move away from as quickly as possible by constructing more classrooms and recruiting more teachers or closing small schools. If small schools are closed, learners are forced to walk very long distances to large schools in their local community and other communities. The long distance to school has a negative bearing on learners' concentration on learning, participation in class, and academic achievement (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012). In their study in Uganda, Senegal, and The Gambia, Mulkeen and Huggins (2009) found that if schools make efforts to explain the nature and purpose of MGT to parents, they accept and support it. There is a need for a concerted effort by all education stakeholders to raise parents' awareness of MGT so that they appreciate and support it.

3.6.3 Double-sessioning

The DS schooling system is a common pedagogical and management practice in small rural schools and large urban schools with inadequate classrooms and teachers (Linden, 2001; Bray, 2008; Sagyndykova, 2013). In the context of Zimbabwe, DS exists in satellite schools (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012) as well as urban primary and secondary schools (Singadi, Goronga, Gatahwi & Mutangirwa, 2014; Kurebwa & Lumbe, 2015). The literature reviewed in this section illuminates the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in small rural schools with DS.

3.6.3.1 Conceptualisation of Double-sessioning

According to Bray (2008), a school with DS caters for two separate groups of learners during the school day using the same buildings, equipment, and other facilities. One group of learners attends the morning session often from early morning to mid-day while the other group attends the afternoon session, usually from mid-day to late afternoon. Bray (2008) reports that in countries

with adequate supplies of teachers, there are different teachers for each session. However, in countries with shortages of teachers, the same teachers teach learners in both sessions. Some double-session schools have separate principals for each session, while others only have one principal (Bray, 2008; Sagyndykova, 2013). There are different models of DS. Henceforth, it is difficult to define the notion of DS in universal terms.

Sagyndykova (2013) defines DS in the context of Mexico as one in which a school uses the same buildings and academic curriculum for two different cohorts of learners. One cohort attends the morning session while the other cohort attends the afternoon session. This definition has two limitations. Firstly, it is not clear whether each session has its principal, or one principal leads both sessions. Secondly, the definition does not specify whether each session has its teachers or the same teachers teach in both sessions.

According to Bray (2008), in Botswana, the term DS entails a school that has different learners in the morning and afternoon sessions. The learners in each session are taught by different teachers and have the same number of classroom hours as learners in a single-session school. What is not clear in this definition is whether each session has its principal or one principal for both sessions. Botswana's model of DS is almost similar to the one used in Zimbabwe. Kurebwa and Lumbe (2015) state that, Zimbabwe's model of DS comprises two separate groups of learners who use the same classrooms, equipment, and facilities. The two groups of learners have different teachers and are managed by a single school head. This model of DS is unofficially known as 'hot-seating' in Zimbabwe. The term 'hot-seating' entails that school seats are not given the time to cool down before the next session begins (Bray, 2008; Singadi et al., 2014).

3.6.3.2 Conditions that contribute to the adoption of Double-sessioning

Several conditions influence developing countries, including Zimbabwe, in adopting DS. According to Bray (2008), many developing countries face serious budget constraints, which hinder their ability to provide educational access to all school-age going children. The governments of these countries resort to DS to double the supply of school places without building additional infrastructure. Sagyndykova (2013) corroborates that most developing countries adopt DS to increase the supply of school places while avoiding serious strain on the budget. Thus, the lack of financial resources to construct adequate schools influences some developing countries to

adopt DS. Bervell, Sam and Boadu (2013) identify three conditions that necessitate the adoption of DS by developing countries in general and African countries in particular. The conditions are high teacher-learner ratios; inability to construct adequate schools; and shortage of trained teachers (Bervell et al., 2013). This suggests that budgetary constraints to construct adequate schools and a shortage of qualified teachers have necessitated the adoption of DS by some developing countries.

Zimbabwe adopted the DS schooling system to cater to the high demand for education after the attainment of independence in 1980. The new Black government adopted the policy of EFA to ensure educational access to all learners, regardless of race (PCIET, 1999; Kanyongo, 2005; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). Education was declared a basic human right to every Zimbabwean child, and primary education was made free and compulsory (Zvobgo, 1997; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). These measures culminated in the phenomenal and unprecedented quantitative expansion in the provision of education in Zimbabwe. The learner enrolment figures at the primary school level rose significantly from 819, 586 in 1979 to 2, 274 178 in 1989, a growth of 177% (Zvobgo, 1999; GoZ, 2009). The sudden phenomenal expansion of educational provision while teaching and learning infrastructure was in short supply, led to the adoption of DS as a stopgap measure (Kapfunde, 1999). Thus, the shortage of schools is one of the major factors that influenced the GoZ to adopt DS.

The FTLRP, which the GoZ implemented in 2000, also culminated in the adoption of DS by some satellite schools that emerged in FTLRRAs. Under the FTLRP, the government resettled land beneficiaries in FTLRRAs before the establishment of schools and other social amenities (Gonese & Makura, 2003; PoZ, 2012). Some land beneficiaries failed to construct adequate classrooms in their schools and adopted DS as a stopgap measure to ensure that their children have access to education (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012). The DS schooling system has helped many countries to address the issue of educational access and move towards universal primary and secondary education (Bray, 2008).

3.6.3.3 Challenges of implementing Double-sessioning

Regardless of ensuring educational access**,** DS has its challenges. This section reviews the literature on the challenges of implementing DS.

3.6.3.3.1 General conditions in double-session schools

Researchers have identified general conditions in double-session schools that militate against the provision of quality education. These conditions provide insights into how DS is creating complexities to the provision of quality education in satellite schools with DS. One such condition is the inadequacy of classrooms. Bray (2008) observes that in most African countries, learners in the morning session use classrooms while those in the afternoon session conduct lessons in the shades of trees waiting for their turn to use classrooms. Goronga, Dozva and Muchenje (2013) acknowledge this problem in their study of DS in Zimbabwe. They found that the teaching and learning process under the shades of trees is prone to distractions and disturbances, which result in a lack of concentration by learners. Goronga et al. (2013) also note with concern that in the shades of trees, there are no special sitting and writing places for learners. Learners sit on the ground, stones, bricks, and timber logs. The absence of proper sitting and writing places makes it very difficult for effective teaching and learning to occur (Bray, 2008; Goronga et al., 2013).

Bad weather conditions pose complexities to the implementation of DS. Bray (2008) states that when it rains, learners in the morning and afternoon sessions find shelter in the available classrooms. The classrooms become so congested that it is not possible to conduct lessons. Goronga et al. (2013) corroborate that on rainy school days, classrooms become overcrowded, and lessons are stopped even if it rains the whole day. The instructional time that is lost during rainy school days compromises the provision of quality education in double-session schools.

Hot weather also militates against the provision of quality education in schools with DS. Bray (2008) and Katjaita (2011) concur that in warm weather, excessive heat makes it extremely difficult for learners who attend afternoon sessions of double-session schools to concentrate on learning. Sagyndykova (2013) agrees and adds that some learners who attend afternoon sessions perform domestic chores or engage in child labour to supplement family income before coming to school. By implication, the learners commence lessons when they are already exhausted. Such a set-up can negatively affect the academic achievement of the learners. One solution to this problem is to alternate morning and afternoon sessions on a weekly, monthly, or termly basis (Bray, 2008). In countries such as Senegal, where teachers can teach in both sessions, it was observed that teacher effectiveness declines in the afternoon session due to fatigue (Bray, 2008; Sagyndykova, 2013). This problem complicates the provision of quality education in the afternoon sessions. Bray (2008)

advises countries in this predicament to train adequate teachers so that each teacher teaches in one session only.

Bray (2008) and Katjaita (2011) corroborate that in schools with DS, pedagogical resources such as buildings, furniture, and textbooks are only adequate for one session. Two different groups of teachers and learners use the resources. Hence, the rate of deterioration is faster than in single-session schools. The inadequate resources are further depleted, culminating in higher maintenance costs for pedagogical resources in double-session than single-session schools (Bray, 2008; Katjaita, 2011). The higher maintenance costs can have a negative bearing on the capacity of double-session schools to procure adequate pedagogical resources for the provision of quality education.

The sharing of classrooms is another source of complexities to the provision of quality education in double-session schools. According to Bray (2008), when teachers share one classroom under DS, they often fear that learners in the other session may tamper with or destroy the instructional media they display in the classroom. This creates a sense of lack of ownership of the classroom by both sets of teachers and learners. The result is that the teachers become reluctant to display instructional media such as posters, charts, and artefacts that create a favourable classroom context to the provision of quality education (Bray, 2008; Mapolisa, Khosa, Ncube & Tshabalala, 2015). Displaying learners' work and instructional media, which supplement lesson content, is one of the pre-conditions for effective teaching and learning (Bray, 2008). If teachers do not display instructional media, the provision of quality education is compromised.

3.6.3.3.2 Instructional time

Evidence in the literature suggests that instructional time is generally shorter in double-session than single-session schools. Linden (2001) reviewed available literature across the world and found that in most countries, double-session schools have less instructional time than single-session schools. Bray (2008) also reviewed official data on the instructional time of primary schools on DS in 13 countries. He found that in seven of the countries, instructional time is shorter in double-session than in single-session schools. In the other six countries, instructional time is similar in double-session and single-session schools. Based on these literature findings, I concluded that instructional time is generally shorter in double-session than in single-session

schools. The shorter instructional time in double-session schools compromises the provision of quality education. Bray (2008) observes that when instructional time is short, the first casualty is non-examinable subjects. He stresses that when DS shortens instructional time, the teachers tend to focus on teaching examinable subjects at the expense of non-examinable ones. Linden (2001) notes the same problem and aptly expresses it as 'narrowing' of the school curriculum. The curriculum for double-session learners is 'narrowed' when teachers focus on teaching examinable subjects to contend with limited instructional time. The learners are exposed to an incomplete curriculum, which limits their career opportunities and life chances.

The second casualty of limited instructional time in double-session schools is the provision of individualised support to learners. The reduced instructional time compels teachers to focus on fast learners at the expense of learners with learning challenges (Bray, 2008; Kurebwa & Lumbe, 2015). The learners with learning difficulties may fail to master some concepts, and their academic achievement is adversely affected.

Ashong-Katai (2013) studied double-session schools in Ghana and found that instructional hours are between 4-5 hours per day in double-session schools and 7-8 hours in single-session schools. The disparity of three hours is so large that it can pose challenges to curriculum coverage in double-session schools. Ashong-Katai (2013) concurs with Bray (2008) that limited instructional time forces some teachers to focus on examinable subjects and neglect non-examinable subjects. A school that denies learners access to some prescribed learning areas cannot be said to be providing quality education. The limited instructional time associated with DS is one of the problems, which forced the government of Ghana to abolish DS (Ashong-Katai, 2013). The decision by the government of Ghana to revert to the single-session schooling system was to provide learners with sufficient instructional time and reinvigorate the provision of quality education.

Although DS is prevalent in satellite, rural, and urban schools in Zimbabwe, most research studies focus on urban schools. Kurebwa and Lumbe (2015) studied double-session primary schools in Gweru Town. It emerged from the study that learners in both morning and afternoon sessions have less instructional time in the classroom than learners in single-session schools. As noted in other studies (Bray, 2008; Ashong-Katai, 2013), the teachers fail to cover all the subjects within the scheduled time and prioritise examinable subjects. They also fail to attend to learners with learning

difficulties owing to instructional time constraints. Kurebwa and Lumbe (2015) also note that limited instructional time forces teachers to rush learners through the syllabus by teaching too much content in one lesson. If teachers overload learners with learning content or rush them through the syllabus, they may fail to grasp the content. These findings are corroborated by a study conducted by Goronga et al. (2013) in Chinhoyi Town of Zimbabwe. The authors note that insufficient instructional time makes it difficult for teachers to complete syllabuses on time for public examinations unless they employ the lecture method. Rote pedagogy is not ideal for the provision of quality education because it makes learners passive recipients of knowledge.

Bray (2008) believes that the impact of limited instructional time on the quality of education in double-session classes is not disastrous. He argues that effective teachers who are well equipped with curriculum resources can achieve more in a short time than ineffective teachers with few resources can achieve in twice the time. The advice here is that the effective implementation of DS requires well trained and adequately resourced teachers. There is a need to explore how DS affects the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite schools during the provision of quality education.

3.6.3.3.3 Management of transitional periods

The management of transitional periods has a bearing on the quality of education a double-session school provides. The concept of a transitional period in the context of the double-session school entails the change-over period from the morning to the afternoon session. Bray (2008) advises that short interim periods of 20 to 30 minutes save instructional time and are often smooth. However, he notes that very short transitional periods are noisy and chaotic. The implication here is that very short or very long transitional periods can be detrimental to the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite schools.

Research studies held in Zimbabwe (Singadi et al., 2014; Kurebwa & Lumbe, 2015) acknowledge that transitional periods are chaotic and unmanageable. Hence, a lot of instructional time is lost during the transitional period. The learning time that is lost can compromise curriculum coverage and the provision of quality education. Singadi et al. (2014) also report cases of double-session schools where there is no time set aside for the transitional period. The transition from the morning to the afternoon session is held during a timetabled lesson, and a lot of instructional time is lost.

In a study of double-session schools in Namibia, Katjaita (2011) reports that classes are always dirty because there is no transition time to allow one session to clean the classroom before the next session starts. A messy classroom poses a health threat to both teachers and learners, which is not ideal for the provision of quality education. These studies are relevant to this study because they illuminate how the management of the transitional period can affect the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite schools with DS.

3.6.3.3.4 Management of extra-curricular activities

Extra-curricular activities are one aspect of the school curriculum, which ensures the holistic development of learners. Available literature indicates that the limited school day under DS leaves little or no time for extra-curricular activities (Sagyndykova, 2013). Bray (2008) expresses similar sentiments when he says, DS forces school authorities to cut back on extra-curricular activities. Katjaita (2011) observes that in some Namibian double-session schools, extra-curricular activities are held in the afternoon. Due to that arrangement, learners in the afternoon session do not get the opportunity to participate in the extra-curricular activities. In the absence of extra-curricular activities, the physical development of learners is compromised. Bray (2008) reports cases of sports players in the afternoon session of double-session schools that are made to miss lessons from time to time to participate in school sporting teams. The learning content that is missed by the learners militates against their progress and academic achievement.

Literature indicates that extra-curricular activities for learners in the morning session usually interfere with the teaching and learning process for learners in the afternoon session. A study carried out in Zimbabwe by Singadi et al. (2014) found that sporting activities for learners in the morning session are held from 2 pm to 4 pm. For learners in the afternoon session, they are held from 8 am to 10 am. The study by Singadi et al. (2014) corroborates earlier research by Bray (2008) that the noise from the sporting fields distracts the attention of learners in the afternoon session from concentrating on learning. This problem can be addressed by holding extra-curricular activities for both sessions at the same time on Saturdays (Bray, 2008).

3.6.3.3.5 Supervision in double-session schools

The afternoon session of a double-session school is sometimes ‘short-changed’ by school inspectors and school principals in terms of supervision. Linden (2001) and Bray (2008) concur

that some double-session schools are so large that it is difficult for school inspectors to supervise all the teachers adequately and effectively. The school inspectors often supervise teachers in the morning session and neglect those in the afternoon session. Most principals of double-session schools usually supervise teachers in the morning session and use afternoons for meetings both within and outside the school (Bray, 2008). This suggests that school inspectors and school principals do not adequately supervise teachers in the afternoon session. Mapolisa et al. (2015) report the same problem in a study of urban double-session schools in Zimbabwe. By implication, the quality of education in the morning session is qualitatively superior to that in the afternoon session. There is also a need to establish the nature of supervision processes in satellite schools that practice DS and their impact on the provision of quality education.

3.6.3.3.6 Attitudes of teachers towards Double-sessioning

One of the determinants of quality education in double-session schools is the attitudes of teachers towards DS. In most countries, teachers tend to perceive double-session schools as qualitatively inferior to single-session schools (Linden, 2001; Bray, 2008; Katjaita, 2011). The negativity that clouds DS can affect the provision of quality education in this school type. Bray (2008) argues that if teachers accept DS, it is most likely to be successful. However, if they feel overwhelmed, inadequately compensated, and professionally frustrated by DS, then it is unlikely to be successful. Therefore, positive teacher perceptions towards DS are crucial for the provision of quality education in double-session schools.

3.6.3.3.7 Attitudes of parents towards Double-sessioning

The attitudes of parents towards DS are generally negative (Linden, 2001; Bray, 2008; Katjaita, 2011). If double-session schools are established as a temporary expedient to be replaced as soon as resources are available, parents often perceive them as inferior to single-session schools (Linden, 2001). This could be the situation in most countries, including Zimbabwe (Linden, 2001) and Namibia (Katjaita, 2011) where DS was adopted as a stopgap measure. If parents perceive double-session schools in this way, they may not support them financially. This can compromise the provision of quality education in the schools since in most African countries, including Zimbabwe; parents are the main financiers of their children's education.

3.6.4 Large class size

Large class size is one of the problems in the educational sector that developing nations are grappling with because it undermines the provision of quality education (Yelkpieri, Namale, Esia-Donkoh & Ofosu-Dwamena, 2012). This problem is quite prevalent in urban areas of most developing countries (Marais, 2016; Wadesango, Hove & Kurebwa, 2016). Although small rural schools are associated with low enrolments, researchers are reporting cases of large class sizes in this school type (PoZ, 2012; Kivunja, 2014; Taole, 2014c; Gasa, 2016). However, there is a dearth of literature on the pedagogical and management practices in large classes in the context of small rural schools, including the satellite school type. As a result, the literature in this section was mainly drawn from studies on large urban schools. The literature provides insights into the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in large classes and their impact on the provision of quality education.

3.6.4.1 The concept of large class size

There is no consensus or standard definition in education literature as to what constitutes a large class (Bahanshal, 2013; Adu, Bayaga & Tella, 2014). This is because teacher-learner ratios and the notion of large class vary in different countries. For instance, Shwandi (2017) reports that in Japan, the teacher-learner ratio of 1:50 is regarded as normal and not a challenge to teachers. In the United States of America and the United Kingdom, the teacher-learner ratio of 1:30 is considered large and problematic for teachers. The recommended teacher-learner ratios for primary schools in Zimbabwe are 1:20 at Early Childhood Development (ECD) level and 1:40 for Grades 1 to 7 (MoESAC, 2013b). From this empirical evidence, it is apparent that the notion of large class size is relative. Mulryan-Kyne (2010) and Bahanshal (2013) agree that large classes are those with a specific number of learners that teachers cannot handle, and resources are not enough for effective teaching and learning to occur. In the context of this study, a large class entails one that exceeds the recommended teacher-learner ratio and poses challenges to effective teaching and learning.

3.6.4.2 Factors contributing to large class sizes

Large classes are a common phenomenon in educational institutions of most Sub-Saharan African countries, including Zimbabwe. According to Mintah (2014), large classes are necessitated by

rapid population growth and the global initiative for free and universal primary education. African governments implemented the policy of free and comprehensive primary education in the context of inadequate schools and teachers. This policy resulted in a phenomenal increase in learner enrolments that schools failed to accommodate. To accommodate all learners, governments had no option but to allow schools to have large classes (Yelkpieri et al., 2012; Mintah, 2014).

Zimbabwe is also confronted with the problem of large class sizes. Zvobgo (1997) states that the colonial government in Zimbabwe denied Blacks equal access to education. After the attainment of independence in 1980, the Black government adopted the policy of EFA and free primary education to ensure educational access to Blacks. These measures resulted in learner enrolment figures at the primary school level rising significantly from 819, 586 in 1979 to 2, 274 178 in 1989 (Zvobgo, 1997). Wadesango et al. (2016) concur and point out that the sudden phenomenal expansion of educational provision when human, financial, and material resources were in short supply led to large class sizes. The teacher-learner ratio burgeoned from 1:40 to 1:60 in some primary schools (Wadesango et al., 2016). Therefore, the phenomenon of large class size in most African countries is a consequence of inadequate school infrastructure and teachers to cater for increasing learner enrolments following the adoption of the policy of free primary education.

Zimbabwe is also grappling with the problem of large class size linked to the Teacher Recruitment Freeze (TRF). The PSC of Zimbabwe imposed a TRF in 2015, citing the unavailability of financial resources to meet any increment in the civil service wage bill (PSC, 2016). The freeze in the recruitment of teachers entails that the government is not recruiting new teachers into the service to fill in vacant posts. This has resulted in acute understaffing and very high teacher-learner ratios in schools. The PSC reports that 8, 509 vacant teaching posts remain unfilled on account of the freeze, against a background of over 19, 000 unemployed teacher graduates in the country (Langa, 2017). In 2019, the MoPSE reported that the deficit of primary and secondary school teachers in the country increased from 12, 000 to 13, 000 due to the TRF (Tshili, 2019). The freeze has created an unfortunate situation where there are vacant posts and unemployed teachers. Still, the government cannot recruit the teachers due to a lack of funds to remunerate them. This set-up has inevitably created unsustainable teacher-learner ratios in Zimbabwe's public primary and secondary schools.

Teacher Unions in Zimbabwe have raised concerns about the problem of high teacher-learner ratios in the schools. The Zimbabwe Teachers' Association (ZIMTA) laments that the teacher-learner ratio has shot to 1: 55 at ECD Level and 1: 60 from Grade 1 to 7 (Mugadzaweta, 2017). The teacher-learner ratios are far above the recommended MoPSE teacher-learner ratios of 1: 20 at ECD level and 1: 40 respectively (MoESAC, 2013b). The Amalgamated Rural Teachers' Union of Zimbabwe (ARTUZ) complains that the teacher-learner ratio has risen to unacceptable levels of 1:100 in rural areas (Murwira, 2018). The Progressive Teachers' Union of Zimbabwe (PTUZ) also reports cases of teachers who are teaching as many as 110 learners in one class (Murwira, 2018). There is a need to explore the effects of high teacher-learner ratios on the quality of pedagogical and management processes in schools, including satellite schools.

3.6.4.3 Challenges of teaching large classes

Large class size poses pedagogical and management challenges to teachers. The challenges include methods of teaching, learner assessment, catering to the diverse needs of learners, and class management. These challenges emanate from the teachers' lack of professional training in handling large classes.

3.6.4.3.1 Lack of pre-service training

The initial challenge that confronts teachers teaching large classes is the lack of training in pedagogical and management skills for teaching large classes. Teacher training institutions tend to prepare teachers for teaching with the official teacher-learner ratios in mind (Kariuki & Guantai, 2005). Teachers are equipped with pedagogical and class management approaches for teaching and managing small or large classes depending on the official teacher-learner ratios in their country or community. Many African countries are grappling with the problem of large class size, but they prepare student teachers to teach official class sizes that are smaller than the classes they will teach as qualified teachers (Mintah, 2014). Put in other words, student teachers are not prepared to teach large classes. Teaching large classes is a pedagogical issue that is not covered in the teacher development programmes of most African countries (Benbow, Mizrachi, Oliver & Said-Moshiro, 2007). In a study in South Africa, Marais (2016) corroborates that, teacher development institutions do not offer appropriate programmes for teachers to handle large classes. The institutions do not equip teachers with the theoretical and practical skills to deal with the unique

challenges associated with large classes. Opoku-Asare, Agbenatoe and DeGraft-Johnson (2014) rightly observe that large classes pose overwhelming challenges to newly appointed teachers who lack exposure to teaching in large classes during their pre-service training. The nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in large classes is a knowledge gap in the discourse of quality education in satellite schools that needs to be addressed.

3.6.4.3.2 Rote pedagogy

Evidence in the literature suggests that class size has an impact on the teacher's choice of pedagogical approaches. In large, overcrowded classes, teachers usually employ rote pedagogical approaches due to lack of space (Opoku et al., 2014). Marais (2016) says, due to overcrowding in large classes, learner-centred pedagogy that promotes active participation by learners is hindered, echo similar sentiments. The teacher-centred pedagogical approaches that the teachers utilise do not effectively provoke learners' thinking and the development of skills associated with quality education. These skills include critical thinking, application of knowledge in real-life situations, and problem solving (Opoku et al., 2014; Marais, 2016). In the same vein, Mupa and Chabaya (2011) argue that in large classes, teachers adopt teacher-centred pedagogical approaches that make learners passive recipients of knowledge. Generally, existing literature agrees that teachers teaching large classes employ teacher-centred strategies that are not ideal for the provision of quality education. This literature is relevant to the current study because it highlights the nature of pedagogical and management approaches utilised in large classes and their effects on the provision of quality education.

3.6.4.3.3 Assessment and feedback

Available literature reveals that large classes overburden teachers with heavy marking loads. In their study in Zimbabwe, Wadesango et al. (2016) report that in large classes, teachers assign learners very few assignment tasks to avoid heavy marking loads. The inadequate assignment tasks limit learners' opportunities to practise and master new concepts. A study by Marais (2016) in South Africa reports that in large classes teachers are so overwhelmed with marking loads that they do not have time to review learners' assignments thoroughly. The errors that the teachers overlook militate against learners' progress and academic achievement. Mupa and Chabaya (2011)

advise that feedback should be detailed, accurate and timeous. Although it is a challenge in large classes, timeous feedback enables teachers to identify and rectify learners' challenges promptly.

3.6.4.3.4 Catering for the individual needs of learners

Research has noted that teachers find it difficult to attend to the individual needs of learners in large classes. The problem emanates from the fact that it is hard to identify individual learners who need extra support in large classes (Adu et al., 2014; Imtiaz, 2014; Marais, 2016). Mupa and Chabaya (2011) who say, large class sizes make it difficult for teachers to facilitate a single channel of communication where they talk to learners as individuals, note the same problem. Teachers usually interact with the learners as groups rather than individually. The problem with this approach is that it does not provide teachers with detailed knowledge of the individual needs of learners. Resultantly, teachers concentrate on teaching fast learners at the expense of slow learners (Wadesango et al., 2016). According to the Equity Model reviewed in Chapter 2, an education system that is insensitive to the diverse needs of learners is not of good quality.

Marais (2016) reports that in South Africa teachers find it difficult to cater to the needs of learners with physical, visual, and hearing impairments in large classes. Wadesango et al. (2016) corroborate that teachers neglect learners with special needs, particularly in large inclusive classes. This amounts to the exclusion rather than the inclusion of learners with special needs. Taole (2014c) argues that small class sizes allow each learner to receive more attention from the teacher. Mulryan-Kyne (2010) agrees and underlines that if teachers work with fewer learners, they can provide personalised attention more than in large classes. In the final analysis, a large class size militates against the teacher's ability to provide effective individualised support to all the learners.

3.6.4.3.5 Management of learner behaviour

Large class size poses learner behaviour management challenges that impede effective teaching and learning and the provision of quality education. In a study of large classes in South Africa, Marais (2016) reports that learners are cramped together and engage in disruptive behaviours. The unruly behaviours include screaming, fighting, bullying others, pushing, and vandalising resources. Similar learner disruptive behaviours in large classes are noted in Saudi Arabia (Bahanshal, 2013), Zimbabwe (Wadesango et al., 2016) and Zambia (Shwandi, 2017). Disruptive learner behaviours in the classroom reduce the efficiency of lesson delivery (Marais, 2016).

Bahanshal (2013) concurs and adds that learner misconduct in large classes minimises the quantity and quality of learning opportunities, lesson pace, and curriculum coverage. It is extremely difficult for teachers to identify and control disruptive learners in large classes (Bahanshal, 2013; Shwandi, 2017). This gives undisciplined learners the leeway to disturb those learners who want to learn. The result is that large classes become chaotic and unmanageable (Marais, 2016; Shwandi, 2017). Such a classroom ambience is irrefutably not ideal for the provision of quality education.

High levels of noise also hamper effective teaching and learning in large and overcrowded classes. In a study conducted in South Africa, Marais (2016) reports that large classes are so noisy that it is impossible for learners who want to learn to focus on learning. Mustafa, Mahmoud, Assaf, Al-Hamadi and Abdulhamid (2014) corroborate that in large classes, learners find it very difficult to concentrate on learning owing to noisy and restive classmates. Noise in large classes is a problematic issue that makes it hard for learners to hear the teacher and concentrate on learning (Bahanshal, 2013; Wadesango et al., 2016). It is evident that noise is one of the barriers to the provision of quality education in large classes.

3.6.4.3.6 Time management

The management of learner behaviour reviewed in the preceding section has a bearing on time management and the provision of quality education in large classes. It emerged from a study conducted by Imtiaz (2014) that, large classes compel teachers to devote more time to managing learner behaviour than actual instruction. Marais (2016) in South Africa noted the same problem. He found that teachers teaching large classes spend a lot of instructional time getting learners to settle down and addressing disruptive behaviours at the expense of teaching. The teachers fail to complete lessons in scheduled time owing to interruptions associated with unruly learner behaviours in large classes (Marais, 2016). In their study in Zimbabwe, Mapfumo, Mukwidzwa and Chireshe (2014) corroborate that addressing learner behavioural problems in large classes cuts deeply into instructional time. If teachers spend more instructional time on managing learner behaviour in large classes than teaching, curriculum coverage and the provision of quality education are compromised.

3.7 QUALITY EDUCATION INITIATIVES IN ZIMBABWE

After the attainment of independence in 1980, the GoZ adopted the policy of EFA to afford Blacks equal access to education (PCIET, 1999; Kanyongo, 2005; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). Following the implementation of the policy of EFA in 1980, there was a quantitative expansion of educational provision in the country. The emphasis was not so much on the quality and cost-effectiveness of the education system but on access to education (Kanyongo, 2005). Put differently, there was a focus on educational access rather than the quality of education. As a result, in the late 1980s, the quality of education deteriorated, and the government realised that quantitative expansion of educational provision in the face of scarce resources compromises the quality of education (Gatawa, 1988; Kapfunde, 1999; Zvobgo, 1999). To promote the provision of quality education in the country, the government shifted its educational policy from an emphasis on quantitative expansion to quality education (Kapfunde, 1999). This section reviews some of the quality education initiatives that the GoZ adopted to improve the quality of primary and secondary education in the country.

3.7.1 Minimum Schools Functionality Standards

One of the pioneering quality education initiatives in post-independent Zimbabwe is the MSFS. According to the MoESAC (2013b), from 1980 to 2012, MoESAC issued MSFS to all schools in the form of circulars. The MoESAC consolidated the circulars into one MSFS Document in 2013. The MSFS refer to the benchmarks of quality education that all schools in Zimbabwe have to meet to be deemed fit for providing quality education (MoESAC, 2013b). These are the minimum pre-conditions that every school is mandated to meet to provide quality education.

The MoESAC (2013b) stipulates the following minimum standards for a school to be registered with the ministry: a standard administration block; at least one standard teacher's house; and at least one standard classroom block. More so, a school should have a safe source of drinking water within 500 metres of the school campus, and adequate toilets for staff members and learners. The ratio of toilet holes to learners is set at 1:20 for girls and 1:25 for boys (MoESAC, 2013b). The 1,016 satellite primary schools in Zimbabwe are failing to meet these preliminary minimum functionality standards to be registered with the MoPSE (MoPSE, 2017). By implication, the quality of education in satellite primary schools is very poor.

After registration with the ministry, there are other MSFS that a school is expected to meet to be regarded as fit to provide quality education. The MoESAC (2013b) states that each school should have one textbook per learner for each core subject, teacher's guides for each core subject per teacher, syllabi for all learning areas offered by the school, a computer, as well as adequate furniture for learners and teachers. However, research studies in Zimbabwe (Mutema, 2014; Tarisayi, 2015) indicate that there is an acute shortage of textbooks and furniture in most satellite schools. The authors note that the inadequacy of textbooks and furniture creates complexities to the provision of quality education in satellite schools.

Regarding teacher qualifications, the MSFS states that the minimum academic and professional qualifications for primary school teachers are five Ordinary Level passes including Mathematics and English as well as a Diploma in Education (Primary) (MoESAC, 2013b). Existing studies (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013) report cases of untrained teachers in satellite schools. However, a recent report by the PSC of Zimbabwe indicates that there are over 19,000 unemployed teacher graduates in the country (Langa, 2017). This may suggest that there are no longer cases of untrained teachers in satellite schools.

In Zimbabwe, the teacher-learner ratios are set at 1:20 at ECD level and 1:40 from Grade 1 to 7 (MoESAC, 2013b). Nonetheless, most schools are grappling with the problem of large classes following the implementation of the TRF by the government in 2015. The TRF has led to high teacher-learner ratios of 1:55 at ECD Level and 1:60 from Grade 1 to 7 (ZIMTA cited in Mugadzaweta, 2017). In line with the MSFS, teachers should employ learner-centred, participatory, and inclusive pedagogical approaches (MoESAC, 2013b). If such large classes exist in satellite primary schools, it is of interest to this study to establish their repercussions on the provision of quality education.

The MSFS stipulate that teachers should maintain a set of professional records. The records include the scheme of work, lesson plans, progress record, attendance register, test record, remedial record, social record, inventory record, and extension record (MoESAC, 2013b). Studies conducted by the PoZ (2012) and Mutema (2014) report cases of multi-grade classes in satellite schools. There is a need to explore how teachers manage professional records in multi-grade classes. On the whole,

the MSFS provide a yardstick to measure the extent to which satellite schools provide quality education in terms of pedagogical and management processes.

3.7.2 School Development Committees

After the attainment of independence in 1980, the GoZ employed a centralised approach to funding education in which it solely funded education from pre-school to adult education. The government funding covered the construction of schools, salaries, and allowances for teachers as well as per capita grants for the procurement of teaching and learning resources (Zvobgo, 1997; Nyandoro, Mapfumo & Makoni, 2013). The government's intention was to accord Blacks access to education that was restricted during the colonial era. Towards the end of the first decade of independence, the huge government expenditure on education became unsustainable, and the quality of primary and secondary education deteriorated (Kapfunde, 1999; Zvobgo, 1999; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). To reinvigorate the quality of primary and secondary education, the government introduced the notion of SDCs in 1991.

The government enacted the Education Amendment Act of 1991, which provides provisions for government-aided schools to establish SDCs (GoZ, 1991). Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992 stipulates that the SDC comprises five elected parents of learners enrolled in the school, the school head, the deputy head, a teacher at the school, and a representative of the responsible authority (GoZ, 1992). The SDCs paved the way for community involvement in funding and managing schools to enhance the provision of quality education. The responsibilities of the SDC include the following: charging and collecting levies from parents; constructing and maintaining school infrastructure; providing instructional resources; and catering for the welfare of learners (GoZ, 1992; MoESAC, 2010). The SDCs have the mandate of developing schools in the best interests of learners, parents, and teachers. They are responsible for mobilising and managing the resources that the school requires to provide quality education. Through SDCs, the government shifted its responsibility of financing education to parents, a situation that has made parents the major financiers of their children's education in Zimbabwe.

As alluded to in Chapter 2, the government resettled fast track land reform beneficiaries in FTLRRAs before the establishment of schools (Gonese & Makura, 2003; Chakanyuka, 2009; PoZ, 2012). The land beneficiaries established satellite schools with financial and management support

from their SDCs. This makes the SDC part of the management process of a satellite school. Among other management processes, the study is concerned about the nature and quality of the management support that SDCs provide in satellite schools.

3.7.3 Better Schools Programme Zimbabwe

The GoZ adopted the BSPZ in 1996 to improve the quality of its primary and secondary education (MoESAC, 2001). The BSPZ operates through a system of school clusters and Cluster Resource Centres (CRCs). A school cluster consists of a group of at least three schools located near each other that agree to work together in improving the quality of education they provide (MoESAC, 2001; Giordano, 2008). The schools share human, material, and financial resources to tackle their challenges and improve the quality of education in the cluster (Giordano, 2008; Maphosa, Mutekwe, Machingambi, Wadesango & Ndofirepi, 2013). School clustering entails inter-school collaboration, pulling together resources as well as sharing of challenges and best practices among schools in the pursuance of quality education. In this way, a school receives management and pedagogical support from its cluster.

The schools in each school cluster pull resources together and establish a Cluster Resource Centre (CRC) that is equipped with educational resources such as books, journals, computers, and internet facilities (MoESAC, 2001). School clustering creates platforms for schools to collaborate, share resources, and support each other in creating teaching and learning ambiences conducive to the provision of quality education. The activities of the school CRC are co-ordinated by a cluster resource teacher who is usually based at the CRC (MoESAC, 2001). To ensure the effective implementation of quality education programmes, the BSPZ has structures at national, provincial, district, cluster, and school levels (Mbudzi & Ndlovu, 2000). The bureaucratic administrative structure of the BSPZ enhances the effective implementation of school cluster programmes.

The BSPZ recommends the following school cluster activities to enhance the provision of quality education: making education responsive to local needs; drawing of common school syllabi and schemes of work; setting and administering of common tests; and creating a research base that guides policy and educational practice at the cluster level (MoESAC, 2000; Maphosa et al., 2013). The provision of quality education is also enhanced through conducting staff development workshops, on-site school supervision visits and demonstration lessons; organising cluster

competitions in sports and other aspects of the curriculum; as well as monitoring and evaluating cluster activities regularly (MoESAC, 2000; Maphosa et al., 2013). These activities address the main dimensions of quality education, namely: relevance; resource inputs; transformation process; outputs; and feedback. Therefore, BSPZ is a comprehensive quality education initiative.

Available literature acknowledges the utility of school clustering. In a study conducted in South Africa, Lock (2011) notes that school clustering offers opportunities for school principals to share and support each other on school leadership issues. School clustering also equips school heads who are vanguards of the quality education imperative with transformational leadership skills to enable them to implement quality education initiatives effectively (Lock, 2011; Maphosa et al., 2013). In their study in South Africa, Jita and Mokhele (2012) report that school clusters improve the pedagogical skills of teachers and the quality of education. Thus, school clustering has the potential of enhancing the quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

Regardless of the efficacy of school clustering discussed above, researchers have drawn our attention to some of its limitations. In their study of school clusters in South Africa, Jita and Mokhele (2012) report that lack of resources is a major factor militating against the effective implementation of school clustering in rural settings. Similarly, Makaye (2015) found that in rural Zimbabwe, school clusters are so poorly funded that teachers and school heads sustain cluster activities from their resources. These challenges can create negative teacher attitudes towards school clustering, which militate against the provision of quality education.

3.7.4 Education Transition Fund

Zimbabwe experienced a decade of economic meltdown from 2000 to 2009, which culminated in hyperinflation and failure by the government to provide schools with per capita grants (MoPSE, 2016). The absence of school per capita grants from the government led to the reintroduction of user fees, acute shortage of teaching and learning resources, high learner dropout rates, deterioration of infrastructure, teacher migration, and mass closure of schools (MoESAC, 2013a). The economic meltdown eroded the qualitative gains the country achieved since 1980 (MoESAC, 2013a; Sadomba, Chigwanda & Manyati, 2015). To reinvigorate the quality of education in the country, the MoPSE with financial assistance from UNICEF and the international donor

community implemented the ETF in 2009 (United Nations in Zimbabwe, 2012). The ETF was implemented in two phases. The first phase involved providing schools with stationery and textbooks. In the second phase, schools received School Improvement Grants (SIGs).

3.7.4.1 Provision of stationery and textbooks

According to the MoESAC (2013a), owing to the economic crisis from 2000 to 2009, the textbook-learner ratio was as high as 1: 10 in 2009 with 20% of rural primary schools having no textbooks at all for core subjects such as English, Mathematics, Science, Shona, and Ndebele. The Zimbabwe Schools Examinations Council (ZIMSEC) Grade 7 pass rate plummeted from 53% in 1999 to as low as 33% in 2007 (MoESAC, 2013a). In a bid to improve the quality of education, the MoESAC in partnership with UNICEF and the international donor community rolled out the first phase of the ETF in 2009. According to the MoESAC (2013a), each learner in the country's 5, 575 primary schools was provided with stationery kits and a set of four core textbooks in Mathematics, English, Science, and Chishona or Ndebele. Following the disbursement of the textbooks and stationery kits, the textbook-learner ratio in core subjects declined significantly from 1:10 to 1:1. In separate studies of satellite schools in Zimbabwe, the PoZ (2012) and Mangwanya et al. (2012) confirm the availability of core textbooks donated by UNICEF in some satellite schools. For non-core subjects, they note that they were either not available, or it was the teacher only who had a textbook (PoZ, 2012; Mangwanya et al., 2012). The ETF stationery and textbooks programme alleviated the dire shortage of textbooks in the schools.

3.7.4.2 School Improvement Grant

The MoPSE with financial assistance from its partners implemented the SIG in 2013 as the second phase of the ETF. The goal of SIG is to provide financially constrained schools with grants to meet MSFS (CfBT Education Trust, 2013; MoPSE, 2016) reviewed in Section 3.9.4 of this study. The SIG targeted financially constrained special schools; registered rural primary schools and satellite primary schools with an average annual income of less than $10,000; registered rural secondary schools and satellite secondary schools with an average annual income of less than $15,000 (MoPSE, 2016). The SIG generally targeted poor small rural schools. According to UNICEF (2018), the grant caters for the fees and levies for Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC), teaching and learning materials and special needs provisions. It also covers school running costs,

building materials, inputs for the school feeding programme, water and sanitary facilities, as well as maintenance costs. School heads and SDC members were trained in financial management to enable them to implement the SIG programme in line with government accounting principles (MoPSE, 2016). This ensured the effective and efficient implementation of the programme in the provision of quality education.

In a study on the efficacy of the SIG in satellite schools, Tarisayi (2015) reports that the programme enabled some satellite schools to complete the construction of their first standard classroom block projects that they had abandoned due to financial constraints. He also notes that satellite schools utilise the grant to construct standard toilets for learners and teachers (Tarisayi, 2015). Thus, the SIG is improving the quality of teaching and learning infrastructure in satellite schools.

3.7.5 Zimbabwe's updated primary and secondary school curriculum

One of the fundamental determinants of quality education is a relevant school curriculum that enhances a country's prospects of realising socio-economic development. According to PCIET (1999), the school curriculum that Zimbabwe inherited from the colonial regime after the attainment of independence in 1980, was too academic and Eurocentric. The PCIET recommended the country to review the school curriculum and align it to its socio-economic needs (PCIET, 1999). In response to this recommendation, the MoPSE implemented an updated primary and secondary school curriculum in 2015 (MoPSE, 2015).

The implementation of the updated curriculum commenced while I was conducting this study. It was, therefore, imperative for me to be conversant with curriculum changes and innovations in the updated primary school curriculum. More importantly, I wanted to understand the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in the satellite school type in the mirror of the updated primary school curriculum framework. It is for this reason that I considered it prudent to review the updated primary school curriculum.

3.7.5.1 Aims of the updated primary and secondary school curriculum

According to MoPSE (2015), the central goal of the updated primary and secondary school curriculum framework is to improve the quality of education in schools. MoPSE (2016) corroborates that the updated primary and secondary school curriculum aims at enhancing quality

education through the curriculum. This makes the updated school curriculum a quality education initiative.

The MoPSE (2015) states the following aims of the updated school curriculum: developing in learners national identity, patriotism, tolerance and *Ubuntu* or *Unhu*; inculcating life, work and entrepreneurial skills in learners in preparation for life and work in a globalised and competitive society; and developing relevant literacy, numeracy and practical skills in learners. It also aims at fostering long-life learning to enable learners to adapt to the opportunities and challenges of the 21st-century knowledge society; preparing learners for participatory citizenship, peace and sustainable development; and orienting learners for voluntary service, participation and leadership (MoPSE, 2015; MoPSE, 2016). These aims incorporate the context, inputs, relevance, equity, process, and outputs dimensions of quality education. Therefore, the updated school curriculum is a holistic quality education initiative.

3.7.5.2 Organisation of the updated curriculum

The updated school curriculum is organised on three levels, namely the Infant level, Junior level, and Secondary school level. According to the MoPSE (2015), the Infant and Junior levels constitute the primary education cycle that comprises nine years. The Infant level includes two ECD classes, that is ECD A and B, as well as Grades 1 and 2. The Junior level runs from Grades 3 to 7. At the end of the primary school cycle, learners take the ZIMSEC Grade 7 national school examinations. The transition to the secondary education cycle follows the formal completion of primary education. The secondary school cycle is in two levels that are Forms 1 to 4 and Forms 5 and 6.

3.7.5.3 Primary school learning areas

According to the MoPSE (2015), the learning areas at Infant Level include Languages, Visual and Performing Arts (VPA), Physical Education, Mass Displays, Mathematics and Science, Family and Heritage Studies, as well as ICT. The learning areas for the junior classes are Languages, Mathematics, Heritage Studies and Life Skills Orientation Programme (LSOP), Science and Technology, Agriculture, VPA, ICT, Physical Education, Sport and Mass Displays, as well as Family, Religion and Moral Education. The updated curriculum has a bias towards STEM subjects to equip learners with scientific and entrepreneurial skills so that they thrive in a knowledge-based

21st-century society (MoPSE, 2015). This resonates well with the goal of the updated school curriculum framework of equipping learners with scientific and entrepreneurial skills so that they create employment for themselves and others.

As noted earlier in Section 3.9.4.1, the MoPSE with financial assistance from UNICEF rolled out the ETF textbook and stationery programme for all schools in 2009. In 2017, the MoPSE implemented the updated school curriculum with some learning areas different from those of the old curriculum. This development has implications for the availability of textbooks in satellite schools and the provision of quality education.

3.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter reviewed the literature on the quality of education in small rural schools. It commenced by conceptualising the notion of a small rural school. This is followed by a review of literature on the quality of education in farm schools in colonial Zimbabwe. Satellite primary schools are located in the same setting as former White-owned farm schools for the children of African farm labourers. Therefore, the literature on the quality of education in the farm schools provided a historical and contextual background to the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools. I also reviewed the literature on the emergence of satellite schools and factors affecting the quality of education in this school type. Most satellite primary schools in Zimbabwe fall under the category of small rural schools. Hence, the literature on the quality of education in small rural schools provided insights into the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools. The chapter ended by reviewing the quality education initiatives that the GoZ implemented to improve the quality of primary and secondary education in the country. The next chapter outlines and justifies the interpretive-qualitative research methodology that I adopted for the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 reviewed literature on the quality of education in small rural schools. The literature provides insights into the nature and quality of pedagogical and management practices in satellite schools. The study aimed at establishing the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools in the context of pedagogical and management processes so that they are adapted to enhance the provision of quality education. This chapter presents and justifies the research methodology that I adopted to address the research questions of the study stated in Chapter 1. For this study, I adopted the interpretive-qualitative methodology with prominence on the multiple case study design. Decisions about the choice of population and sampling procedures, sample, selection of sites and participants, data generation methods, and methods of data analysis are given. I also discussed strategies for enhancing trustworthiness and ethical issues.

4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

The research methodology in any kind of research, whether natural sciences or social sciences is informed by a philosophical paradigm (Leavy, 2017; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). This section presents and justifies the interpretive research paradigm that informs the study.

4.2.1 Interpretivism

The basic assumption of interpretivism is that reality is socially constructed, and the role of the researcher is to interpret reality from the perspectives of the social actors involved in constructing it (Mertens, 2010; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). I adopted the interpretive paradigm to make sense of the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools from the perspectives of teachers and TICs. The ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions of the interpretive paradigm inform this study.

4.2.2 Ontological assumptions

The researcher's assumptions about the nature of reality depend on ontology. The notion of ontology entails a philosophical belief system that is concerned about the nature of social reality

(Taylor et al., 2016; Leavy, 2017; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). The fundamental ontological question of this study is "what is the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools in the provision of quality education?" Interpretivism rejects the positivist notion that there is pre-existing and objective reality 'out there' waiting to be discovered (MacMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Mertens, 2010; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). They believe that humans construct reality in the on-going process of interaction with others and attach meanings to it (Neuman, 2014). Expressed differently, humans do not discover reality but socially construct it. Social researchers generate credible and authentic interpretations of reality from the perspectives of the social actors involved in constructing reality (Mertens, 2010; Braun & Clarke, 2013). Guided by this view, I selected teachers and TICs who are involved in implementing pedagogical and management processes in satellite schools as key informants. Interpretivism holds that there are multiple, fluid, and relative realities that are socially constructed by social actors through social interaction (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Neuman, 2014). I generated the multiple perspectives of the research participants on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in the selected schools through FGIs and in-depth interviews.

4.2.3 Epistemological assumptions

Epistemology is the philosophical belief system about how we know about the world around us, and what counts as true knowledge (Neuman, 2014; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). Interpretivism assumes that knowledge is rooted in contexts and persons apart from the researcher (Mertens, 2010). I interviewed the teachers and TICs in their respective schools to understand the research problem *in situ*. This is primarily because humans engage with their social world and make sense of it based on their cultural and historical context (Crotty, 1998; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). To interpretivism, knowledge is inductively gained through personal experience with the human community (Crotty, 1998; Taylor et al., 2016; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). In other words, interpretivism assumes that research findings are rooted in the data generated from the field. The nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in the schools emerged from the data that I generated in the field. This is what interpretivism refers to as grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Braun & Clarke, 2013; Cohen et al., 2018). I adopted the inductive approach to understand the impact of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools on the provision of quality education from the perspectives of the research participants.

4.2.4 Methodological assumptions

Methodological assumptions influence how the inquirer gains knowledge about the social world (Cohen et al., 2018). Interpretivism holds that the inquirer makes sense of the subjective meanings of social actors through personal interaction, negotiation, and the use of inductive research methodologies (Willig, 2013; Cohen et al., 2018). I engaged in personal interaction with the research participants through in-depth interviews and FGIs. As noted by Mertens (2010), personal interaction is hermeneutical and dialectical in that the researcher strives to obtain multiple perspectives about the research problem. I utilised open-ended sub-questions of the study as interview questions to capture the various perspectives of the research participants on the research problem. The more open the questioning, the more multiple perspectives of the respondents are captured (Creswell & Creswell, 2018) on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

For this study, I adopted the qualitative research approach that is informed by the interpretive paradigm. A qualitative research approach is a form of inductive research that focuses on understanding the subjective meanings that individuals or groups ascribe to a social situation in its natural setting (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). The thrust of the qualitative approach is to generate an insider's view of social reality in natural settings. Since I was a 'stranger' concerning pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools, the qualitative approach was ideal for the study.

The goal of qualitative research is to understand participants from their points of view and in their voices (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Taylor et al., 2016). Thus, the essence of the qualitative research approach is to understand participant perspectives on the research problem. Throughout the research process, I was preoccupied with learning about the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite schools from the teachers and TICs. The use of in-depth interviews and FGIs, which are unstructured data generation methods, enabled the research participants to express their opinions on the research problem in detail. The unstructured nature of the data generation methods allowed me to capture the multiple perspectives of the research

participants on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

The qualitative research approach is inductive (Taylor et al., 2016; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). This means that the researcher develops insights, patterns, and themes from generated data rather than collecting data to assess preconceived hypotheses or theories (Taylor et al., 2016). In line with inductive logic, I did not commence this study with a null hypothesis to prove or disprove after collecting and analysing data as in quantitative research. I utilised in-depth interviews and FGIs to generate data on the research problem from the TICs and teachers. After that, I synthesised the data into emerging themes, categories, and sub-categories using TA and CCA. The predetermined hypotheses associated with quantitative research not only limit the type of data to be collected but also cause bias (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

The qualitative research approach holds that the natural setting is very important in understanding social reality because it influences the nature of social reality (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Data and interpretations are rooted in the context and not the figments of the researcher (Mertens, 2010). Cognisant of the impact of the study setting on participant perspectives, I interviewed the teachers and TICs in their natural settings, that is, their respective satellite schools. I wanted to understand from the participants themselves how contextual conditions affect the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools. An explanation of social reality that does not take into account the natural setting is incomplete (Taylor et al., 2016).

The qualitative research approach utilises an emergent research design (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This entails that the research process is flexible. The researcher has to learn about the research problem from the research participants and plan to address it during the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Braun & Clarke, 2013; Braun et al., 2018). I initially wanted to generate data from School Inspectors, Cluster Heads, Heads of ‘mother schools’, TICs, teachers, learners, and parents. However, due to financial and time constraints, only TICs and teachers participated in the study. This is why Creswell and Creswell (2018) say, the qualitative research process cannot be tightly prescribed before commencing the study, some or all phases of the research process may change after the researcher begins to generate data. I reviewed the in-depth and focus group interview guides several times in line with the flexible nature of the qualitative research approach.

In the qualitative research approach, there is a preference for rich narrative descriptions (Taylor et al., 2016). The descriptions are in the form of words or pictures rather than numbers, although simple numerical summaries are used in some qualitative studies (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Taylor and Bogdan (1984) cited in Chisaka (2013) express similar sentiments when they say; the human aspect is maintained by presenting data in the words of the research participants rather than numbers and statistical equations. Accordingly, verbatim citations of the participants' views were extensively utilised in the presentation, analysis, and discussion of the findings in Chapter 5. The verbatim citations capture the voices of the research participants on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools. My goal was to understand the research problem from the perspectives of the research participants.

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design guides the execution of an empirical research study. It is a detailed research plan for generating, analysing, and systematically interpreting data (Babbie, 2015). The multiple case study design, which is a strand of case study research, guided the study. The multiple case study design involves studying two or more cases on the same phenomenon (Stake, 2010; Yin, 2018). For this study, I studied four selected satellite primary schools. The multiple case study design is utilised to generate insights that expand our understanding of a particular phenomenon as it manifests itself across cases (Willig, 2013). The design was deemed fit for generating a detailed understanding of the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

The logic underlying a multiple case study is that each case is selected so that it produces similar or contrasting results (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). This means that cases are either similar or different in certain key ways. The selected schools were similar in that they had multi-grade classes but different in terms of the teaching and learning infrastructure they utilised. School A uses poles, dagga, and grass-thatched structures; School B, non-standard classroom blocks and a shade; School C, tobacco barns; and School D, incomplete standard classroom block, a shade and a garage. I selected the four cases to generate a wide spectrum of how the pedagogical and management processes in the satellite primary affect the provision of quality education.

The multiple case study design has distinct advantages in comparison to a single case study design. A single case study only allows the researcher to understand one unique case (Stake, 2010; Yin, 2018). In a multiple case study, the results of two or more cases can be compared (Starman, 2013; Yin, 2018). I compared findings from the four cases to establish commonalities and differences in the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in the schools. With each new situation, the emerging theory is modified to account for all instances associated with the phenomenon (Willig, 2013). In this way, the multiple case study design provided richer and more detailed data on how the pedagogical and management process of the satellite primary school influences the provision of quality education.

The multiple case study design has limitations. Stake (2010) and Yin (2018) concur that the multiple case study design produces voluminous amounts of narrative data that are difficult to analyse. I addressed this challenge by employing TA and CCA to analyse the data adequately. Positivists accuse case study research of being low in generalisability (Willig, 2013). This limitation did not deter me from adopting the multiple case study design, which is a variant of case study research. My intention was not to generalise the findings of the study universally but to illuminate how pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools affect the provision of quality education.

4.5 POPULATION

In empirical research, the specification of a sample starts with the identification of the research population. The concept of population entails the totality of entities from which a sample is drawn (Best & Khan, 2010; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). It is the entire set of individuals or other entities to which the findings of the study are transferred. The population for this study comprised 55 satellite primary schools in Makonde District, their 55 TICs, and 709 teachers (DSIR, 2020).

4.6 SAMPLING

It was not possible to generate data for the study from the whole population, so I selected a sample. I adopted the purposive sampling procedure to select the study sites and participants for this study. Qualitative researchers employ purposive sampling to identify rich sites and rich informants on the phenomenon under study (Mertens, 2010; Patton, 2015; Cohen et al., 2018). Purposive sampling involves the researcher selecting the study sites and research participants that provide

the best information about the research problem (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Kumar, 2011). Although positivists accuse purposive sampling of being low in representativeness and generalisability, it allows the researcher to select information-rich sites and rich informants (Cohen et al., 2018). It is for this reason that I preferred purposive sampling for this study.

4.6.1 Selection of schools

Based on the literature findings in Section 3.6.2, I assumed that satellite schools with multi-grade classes are rich sites for exploring the research problem. However, it emerged from the DSI that most satellite schools in Makonde District have multi-grade classes. Faced with this challenge, I requested the DSI to assist me in purposively sampling four satellite schools with the longest experience of MGT. In this way, I selected rich information study sites on how the pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools affect the provision of quality education.

4.6.2 Selection of Teachers in Charge

I purposively sampled the four TICs of the selected satellite primary schools. Patton (2015) and Schutt (2015) concur that in purposive sampling, each element is selected for a particular purpose. I purposively sampled the TICs to generate an administrative perspective on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in the schools and their impact on the provision of quality education.

4.6.3 Selection of teachers

I purposively selected four teachers with the longest teaching experience in satellite schools at each of the four schools, ending with 16 teachers participating in the study. The long teaching experience of the teachers in satellite schools made them rich informants on the research problem.

4.6.4 Sample size

In qualitative research, samples tend to be relatively small because of the depth of information that the researcher seeks from the research sites and research participants (Mertens, 2010). I purposively sampled four satellite primary schools; four TICs of the schools, and 16 teachers, that is, four teachers from each school with the longest experience of teaching in satellite primary schools. Table 4.1 summarises the sample, which I purposively sampled for the study.

Table 4.1: Summary of sample size

Cases	Description	Number	Sampling procedure
Schools	Satellite primary schools	4	Purposive
Teachers in Charge	Teaching heads of satellite primary schools	4	Purposive
Teachers	Four teachers from each school with the longest teaching experience in satellite primary schools	16	Purposive

4.7 DATA GENERATION

In qualitative research, data are generated rather than gathered or collected (Chisaka, 2013). I generated data for the study through in-depth interviews and FGIs with TICs and teachers, respectively. I planned the data generation methods in such a way that the data generated through in-depth interviews were further explored in FGIs and vice versa. I intended to generate a holistic picture of how pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools affect the provision of quality education.

4.7.1 In-depth interviews

Jones (1985 cited in Cohen et al., 2018) advises that to understand other persons' constructions of reality, we would do well to ask them in such a way that they tell us in their terms rather than those imposed rigidly on a priori by ourselves. I took heed of this counsel and utilised in-depth interviews to generate data from the TICs. In-depth interviewing entails a face-to-face encounter between the researcher and an informant directed towards understanding the experiences of the research participants in their own words (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Taylor et al, 2016). At the root of in-depth interviewing is an interest in understanding the lived experiences of the research participants (Seidman, 2013; Taylor et al., 2016) on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

I utilised an in-depth interview guide to generate data from the TICs (**See Appendix E**). The in-depth interview guide was based on the following sub-questions of the study stated in Chapter 1:

- What is the nature and quality of pedagogical processes in satellite primary schools in the provision of quality education?
- How is the nature and quality of management processes in satellite primary schools implemented during the provision of quality education?
- How are the prospects and complexities of quality primary education in satellite schools currently managed?
- How can quality education be improved in satellite primary schools?

Each TIC had a class to teach. To avoid disrupting the teaching and learning process, I conducted interviews in the afternoon when the TICs were not teaching. The interviews were in English, and each interview lasted for at least 45 minutes. I recorded the interviews using a voice recorder and later transcribed them verbatim.

In-depth interviews comprise open-ended questions that enable respondents to express, in detail and their own words, how they conceive their world and make sense of it (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Johnson & Christensen, 2014). The open-ended questions enabled the TICs to express multiple perspectives on how the pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools affect the provision of quality education. In-depth interviewing makes it possible for the researcher to probe respondents for greater clarity and depth on the research problem (Seidman, 2013; Johnson & Christensen, 2014). As a result, I generated extensive and rich data on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools, and their impact on the provision of quality education.

After transcribing and analysing the first interviews, I carried out follow-up interviews to seek clarification and more details on the research problem. During the follow-up interviews, I continued to establish trust and rapport with the respondents. They eventually opened up and provided more information regarding the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools during the provision of quality education. After two rounds of follow-up interviews, data saturation was reached, and I terminated the interviews. Data saturation occurs when no new data relevant to the research problem emerge from the interviews

(Charmz, 2014). Data saturation was an indicator that I had generated adequate data on the research problem.

The major limitation of in-depth interviewing is that it is time-consuming (Taylor et al., 2016; Denscombe, 2014). There were cases of interviews that went up to one hour instead of 45 minutes. I noted that such interviews were long because the TICs responded to the questions in detail. In this context, I did not consider in-depth interviewing as time-consuming, but as an opportunity to generate detailed data.

4.7.2 Focus Group Interviews

I held FGIs with teachers at each of the four satellite schools. I asked the teachers the same questions as the TICs **(See Appendix F)**, to enhance the trustworthiness of the study. A focus group interview consists of a small group of people who are brought together by a researcher to explore in detail attitudes, perceptions, feelings, and ideas about a research topic (Denscombe, 2014). It is a collective in-depth interview facilitated by the researcher to generate rich data.

The study comprised four focus groups, that is, one focus group per school comprising four teachers. The number of discussants per focus group is in tandem with the view that a focus group consisting of not more than 6 to 8 discussants ensures maximum participation by all discussants (Flower, 2009; Willig, 2013). I also took heed of Johnson and Christensen's (2014) counsel that, focus groups should be homogeneous in terms of discussants to promote discussions. All the focus groups consisted of teachers only. The TICs who are teaching principals in the schools did not participate in the FGIs. Focus groups comprising homogenous participants avoid power dynamics that prevent some discussants from freely expressing their views (Willig, 2013).

FGIs are productive when the environment is permissive, accommodating, and non-threatening (Chisaka, 2013). I agreed on a set of ground rules with the discussants before the commencement of the interviews as a way of creating an atmosphere of trust, friendliness, and openness. We agreed that the FGI deliberations were confidential and would not be taken outside of the group by any individual member of the group. The participants also agreed to respect each other's views. The ground rules ensured that the FGIs remained on course with all the participants contributing freely and openly.

In tandem with the naturalistic nature of qualitative research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018); I conducted the FGIs in the natural settings of the participants, that is, at their respective schools. Each FGI lasted for at least one hour. All the FGIs were in English. I audio-recorded the interviews and later transcribed them verbatim.

FGIs have several advantages that also applied to this study. The interviews generated a wider range of responses than individual interviews (Seidman, 2013; Denscombe, 2014; Cohen et al. 2018), resulting in richer and holistic data on the research problem. During the FGIs, I noted that the contributions by some discussants stimulated other discussants to participate, resulting in heated debates. The discussants triggered one another's memory of specific events and facts (Taylor et al. 2016) on the research problem. They also elaborated on each other's views and in some cases, corrected each other. This is in line with the observation by Willig (2013) that, in focus groups, beliefs are challenged, developed, and qualified. Such incidents increased the depth, richness, and credibility of the research findings. The FGIs were based on open-ended questions that allowed me to probe the discussants for more details on the impact of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools on the provision of quality education.

The FGIs, like any other data generation method, have limitations. There is a tendency for some discussants to dominate the discussions (Denscombe, 2014; Cohen et al., 2018). I addressed this challenge by encouraging all the discussants to participate in the discussions, resulting in more lively discussions. While facilitating the interviews, I realised that tactful encouragement is required for all discussants to participate in discussions. In some FGIs, a lot of time was lost as the discussants focused on peripheral issues. I desisted from stopping the discussants when they focused on matters unrelated to the research problem. Instead, I asked them questions that re-directed them to the research problem.

4.8 DATA ANALYSIS

The in-depth interviews and FGIs that I utilised in this multiple case study produced voluminous amounts of qualitative data. I analysed the data using TA and CCA.

4.8.1 Thematic Analysis

TA is a method used for identifying, analysing, and reporting categories, and patterns or themes within generated data (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Braun et al., 2018). It entails looking across all the generated data to identify recurring categories and themes that summarise the views of the research participants concerning the research questions. TA is based on inductive logic, which involves uncovering categories and themes from generated data (Willig, 2013). This means that categories and themes are ingrained in generated data. Consistent with inductive logic, I did not commence this study with themes and categories to fit in the data; instead, I generated them from the data. Braun and Clarke (2013) propose the six stages of TA that I followed in analysing data for this study. I discussed the six stages in turn below.

4.8.1.1 Organising the data

Organising the data is the first stage of TA. This stage involves the compilation of all case data into a computer database (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Marshall & Rossman, 2016). It entails organising data into file folders, index cards or computer files. In line with the multiple case study design, I created a computer database for each of the four cases. I transcribed verbatim the audio-recorded data for each case from in-depth interviews with TICs and FGIs with teachers. I typed all the handwritten field notes and memos and included them in their respective computer databases.

4.8.1.2 Immersion in the data

After organising the data, the next stage is immersion in the data. This stage involves the repeated reading of data transcripts as well as listening to audio-recorded data several times to make sense of the data before coding it (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Braun et al., 2018). I immersed myself in the data by reading the data transcripts of the four cases, one by one and line by line several times. I verified the data from the interview transcripts by listening to audio-recorded interviews many times. Immersion in the data familiarises the researcher with categories and themes in the data (Braun & Clarke, 2013). As I familiarised myself with the data, I wrote memos on the margins of the data transcripts. Memos are reflective notes that the researcher writes on either the margin or text of data transcripts as a way of capturing significant issues that one is learning from the data (Johnson & Christensen, 2015). I should mention that memoing started during the data generation

stage and continued throughout the data analysis and discussion process. Therefore, memoing is a continuous process.

4.8.1.3 Generating codes

This stage involves generating a coding system and coding the data. In TA, a code is usually a word, phrase or symbol that identifies a data segment of interest to the researcher (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2014; Saldaña, 2016). Coding the data involves working through the data set line-by-line labelling data segments that are relevant to the research questions (Willig, 2013; Saldaña, 2016). I used phrases to code data segments related to the research questions. I wrote phrases such as Multi-grade Teaching, management support from the SDC, and large class size on the margins of the data transcripts. The codes are inductive because I generated them through prolonged immersion in the data. In other words, the codes are 'data-driven' rather than 'theory-driven' (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Braun et al., 2018). In coding the data, I closely examined the suitability of a data segment before assigning a code. During this process, I reviewed the codes several times in line with the sub-questions of the study. For data segments that included data applicable to several codes, I utilised multiple coding. The data coding stage prepared me for generating categories.

4.8.1.4 Generating categories

In this phase of TA, data segments with similar codes are drawn together to form categories (Braun & Clarke, 2013). A data category is a concise description that captures the essence of a data segment (Miles et al., 2014). I cut the data segments with similar codes from coded databases and pasted them on the same page. In this way, I generated initial data categories for the study. Following the advice of Braun and Clarke (2013), I reviewed the categories several times integrating relevant ones into higher-order categories, splitting broad ones, and eliminating those that were not relevant to the research questions. Consistent with the flexible nature of qualitative research (Taylor et al., 2016), I reviewed the categories many times as new insights emerged from the data.

4.8.1.5 Generating themes

In TA, generating themes involves three stages namely: searching for themes; reviewing themes; as well as defining and naming themes. A theme captures something important about the data concerning the research question (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Braun et al, 2018). Searching for themes involves integrating the categories identified in the previous stage into themes and sub-themes. I discarded the data categories that were not relevant to the research questions and any theme. After that, I reviewed the generated themes. Reviewing themes requires the researcher to move continually between the evolving thematic map and the raw data (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Willig, 2013). I reviewed the themes by collapsing some themes and sub-themes and breaking themes that were too broad into separate themes. I discarded the themes and sub-themes that were not related to the research questions. I continued to review the themes as new insights emerged from the data.

4.8.1.6 Producing the report

The final stage of TA is producing the research report. It involves the final analysis and write-up of the research report concerning the research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2013), relevant literature and the theoretical framework adopted for the study.

4.8.2 Constant Comparative Analysis

I triangulated TA outlined above with CCA developed by Glaser and Strauss in 1967. The authors define CCA as the continuous process of comparing emerging categories and themes across all cases until no more variation is found (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Cohen et al., 2018). The goal of CCA is to achieve saturation or a perfect fit among emerging categories, themes, and data. The CCA method involves the following four stages: coding segments; integrating segments into categories; delimiting categories; and setting out the theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

I compared the categories that emerged from TA and CCA across the four cases and integrated them into higher-order categories. The integrated categories are compared with the data and reviewed until saturation is reached (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). I discarded the categories that did not relate in any way to the research problem. After that, I integrated the categories generated through CCA into emerging themes and compared them with the themes generated under TA. Then I synthesised the themes generated from TA and CCA into higher-order themes, discarding

themes unrelated to the research problem. Glaser and Strauss (1967) refer to this stage as the delimitation of categories. The overarching categories and themes that emerged from the study are analysed and discussed in Chapter 5. This is the stage that Glaser and Strauss (1967) call setting out the theory. I terminated CCA and TA when I was satisfied that all the categories, sub-categories, and themes were rooted in the data. In this way, I attained the notion of grounded theory advocated by Glaser and Strauss (1967). The triangulation of TA and CCA helped to enhance the trustworthiness of the study.

4.9 TRUSTWORTHINESS

One of the central concerns of qualitative research is to generate credible and authentic research findings. This makes trustworthiness a critical issue in qualitative research. The concept of trustworthiness entails the extent to which research findings represent the reality of the people or other entities under study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). Lincoln and Guba's (1985) model of trustworthiness was adopted for the study. The model identifies the following four criteria for establishing trustworthiness: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

4.9.1 Credibility

The term credibility refers to the extent to which research findings approximate reality and are judged by the research participants as a true reflection of their lived experiences (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Krefting, 1991). It entails the truthfulness of research findings. I enhanced the credibility of this study through prolonged engagement, member checks, and triangulation. In terms of prolonged engagement, I conducted three rounds of interviews at each school. Mertens (2013) advises that researchers should spend sufficient time in the field to avoid premature closure. The prolonged engagement was essential to building trust and rapport with the research participants. As trust and rapport increase, research participants volunteer sensitive information to the researcher (Krefting, 1991) on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite schools. I terminated the prolonged engagement in the field when the emerging themes and examples started recurring instead of extending.

Member checks are the most critical technique for establishing credibility in qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). They involve continuously taking data and interpretations back to the research participants for verification, corrections, and additional information (Patton, 2015;

Creswell & Creswell, 2018). I regularly asked the research participants to verify the accuracy of the research findings and made changes where necessary. The member checks were quite useful in eliminating misinterpretations and misrepresentations in the data.

Triangulation is another strategy that I utilised to enhance the credibility of the research findings. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), triangulation involves the use of multiple methods, investigators, and data sources to generate corroborating evidence. I triangulated in-depth interviews and FGIs. The findings generated through one method were cross-checked through the other method. I also enhanced the credibility of the research findings by generating data from different sources. I generated data for the study from the four selected satellite schools, as well as the TICs and teachers. Triangulating TA and CCA in analysing the data generated from in-depth interviews and FGIs enhanced the credibility of the study. The triangulation of research methods, research sites, and research participants allowed me to explore the research problem from many angles. I avoided a narrow and one-dimensional account of the impact of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools on the provision of quality education.

4.9.2 Transferability

Transferability entails the extent to which research findings are applicable in other contexts with similar conditions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Bitsch, 2005). In other words, research findings are transferable if they fit other settings with similar conditions. I enhanced the transferability of the research findings through purposive sampling and thick descriptions. I purposively sampled rich information sites and rich informants for the study as explained under sampling in Section 4.6. To ensure the transferability of the research findings, I also provided detailed contextual descriptions of the study sites and the verbatim responses of the research participants. The detailed contextual descriptions and verbatim responses provide readers with sufficient information to judge the applicability of the findings to other satellite primary schools in Zimbabwe.

4.9.3 Dependability

Research findings are dependable if they are consistent and accurate overtime (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Bitsch, 2005). Expressed differently, a study is dependable if it produces the same results when repeated in the same or similar context with the same participants and procedures. I enhanced the dependability of this study through triangulation, member checks, thick descriptions, purposive

sampling, and mechanically recording interviews. Following the counsel of Krefting (1991), I kept a detailed audit trail of the data generation, analysis and interpretation processes. The audit trail included raw data, field notes, memos, and documents. I found the audit trail quite useful for cross-checking the accuracy of the research findings.

4.9.4 Confirmability

Confirmability is concerned with establishing that data and interpretations of the findings are a true reflection of the lived experiences of the research participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). By implication, confirmability is attained when research findings are free from the value judgements, prejudices, and biases of the researcher. Krefting (1991) proposes researcher reflexivity as a strategy for enhancing confirmability. In tandem with reflexivity, I declared my assumptions on the research problem in Chapter 1 and made them known to the research participants. Throughout the study, I made sure that my assumptions did not interfere with the findings of the study. I achieved this through regular member checks. I incorporated the corrections and additional information that I generated from the member checks into the research findings to enhance the confirmability of the study.

4.10 ETHICAL ISSUES

Educational research inevitably carries ethical issues because it involves generating data from people, and about people (Punch, 2014). Henceforth, planning for educational research must identify and consider the ethical issues involved. I took into consideration ethical issues as outlined below.

4.10.1 Approval for conducting the study

Obtaining approval or permission to conduct a study is the necessary starting point for ethical research practice. When researching in educational settings, it is essential to obtain permission from the ‘gatekeepers’, who may be the principal, the superintendent, or a committee that is charged with this responsibility (Cohen et al., 2018). I applied for an Ethical Clearance Certificate from the University of South Africa (UNISA) before the commencement of data generation, and it was granted (**See Appendix A**). The MoPSE Head Office in Harare, the Provincial Education Director (PED) for Mashonaland West Province, and the District Schools Inspector (DSI) for

Makonde District also permitted me to conduct the study (**See Appendix B**). I also obtained approval to conduct the study from the TICs of the selected schools. Data generation only commenced after I had obtained approval to conduct the study.

4.10.2 Voluntary informed consent

Research participants have the choice to participate or not participate in a research study (Kumar, 2011; Schutt, 2015). It follows that, if humans are to participate in a study, the researcher must obtain their voluntary informed consent. The principle of voluntary informed consent arises from humans' right to freedom and self-determination that requires them to weigh up the risks and benefits of a research study, and decide for themselves whether to take part (Neuman, 2014; Cohen et al., 2018). I informed the TICs and teachers about the nature, purpose, risks, and benefits of the study as well as their role in the research. I also emphasised that participation was voluntary, and the research participants were free to withdraw from the study at any point. All the participants voluntarily completed and signed informed consent agreement forms.

4.10.3 Privacy, anonymity and confidentiality

Maintaining privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality is another key ethical standard for protecting research participants, and the researcher's commitment to that standard should be included in the informed consent agreement (Best & Khan, 2010; Denscombe, 2014). The essence of this ethical principle is that information provided by the participants should in no way reveal their identity, and unauthorised persons should not have access to the information (Kumar, 2011; Cohen et al., 2018). Put in other words, the research participants, as well as the data they provide, should remain anonymous in the research report. In line with this ethical principle, I requested the participants not to expose their names or those of their schools during the interviews. I identified the selected schools as Satellite School A, Satellite School B, Satellite School C, and Satellite School D to ensure privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality. To ensure privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality, I did not mention the names of the research participants in the research report. I identified them as TICs or teachers. I made sure that unauthorised persons did not have access to the data generated from the study by storing the hard and soft copies of data transcripts under lock and key, and in a computer with a password, respectively.

4.10.4 Avoidance of harm

The most basic concern in all research is that no research participants are harmed because of participating in the study (Denscombe, 2014; Schutt, 2015). In essence, the role of research is to do good by improving the welfare of humans. Researchers must protect research participants from any form of harm, including physical, social, psychological, and emotional harm (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Cohen et al., 2018). I avoided harming the research participants by respecting their integrity and dignity and upholding the ethical principles discussed in this section.

4.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented and justified the research methodology that I adopted to address the sub-questions of the study stated in Chapter 1. For this study, I employed the interpretive-qualitative research methodology with an emphasis on the multiple case study design. The research methodology was consistent with my intention of understanding the impact of transformation processes in satellite primary schools on the provision of quality education from the perspectives of the research participants. I utilised the purposive sampling procedure to select rich information study sites and rich informants. In line with the interpretive-qualitative methodology, I employed in-depth interviews and FGIs to generate data from the TICs and teachers, respectively. To analyse the data adequately, I triangulated TA and CCA. The chapter also discussed the strategies of enhancing trustworthiness that I employed and ethical issues. The next chapter presents an analysis and discussion of the main findings that emerged from the study.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter outlined and justified the interpretive-qualitative research methodology that I employed to generate data for the study. I generated data for this multiple case study through in-depth interviews and FGIs with TICs and teachers, respectively. The purpose of this chapter is to present an analysis and discussion of the findings of the study. The study sought to address the following main research question: How can the prospects and complexities of quality primary education in satellite schools located in FTLRRAs in Makonde District be adapted to enhance the provision of quality education? I presented, analysed, and discussed the findings of the study according to participants' responses to the following sub-questions of the study:

- What is the nature and quality of pedagogical processes in satellite primary schools in the provision of quality education?
- How is the nature and quality of management processes in satellite primary schools implemented during the provision of quality education?
- How are the prospects and complexities of quality primary education in satellite schools currently managed?
- How can quality education be improved in satellite primary schools?

I posed the sub-questions of the study stated above to the TICs and teachers who participated in the study. The reason for asking the research participants similar questions was to enhance the trustworthiness of the research findings.

The chapter commences by providing the contextual data of the study, followed by a presentation of themes, categories, and sub-categories as shown in **Table 5.1**. After that, I present the views of the teachers and TICs for each theme. The report of findings under each theme is followed by a discussion of how the findings are similar or differ from literature findings in Chapters 2 and 3.

5.2 CONTEXTUAL DATA

Qualitative researchers provide sufficient details about the context of the study so that readers understand the complexity of the research setting and participants (Mertens, 2010; Taylor et al., 2016). This section presents the contextual data of the study.

5.2.1 Characterisation of the sample

I purposively selected four satellite primary schools, four TICs of the schools, and 16 teachers (four teachers from each school) as the study sample.

5.2.1.1 Teachers in Charge

The TICs of the four purposively selected satellite primary schools participated in the study. All the TICs were holders of the Diploma in Education (Primary), and one of them was a holder of the Bachelor of Education Degree (Primary). The TICs had more than four years of teaching experience in satellite primary schools and a minimum of three years in the post of TIC. The four TICs had relevant professional qualifications and adequate experience to articulate the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in the schools during the provision of quality education.

5.2.1.2 Teachers

I purposively selected 16 teachers (four teachers with the longest teaching experience at each of the four selected satellite primary schools) as key informants. All the teachers were holders of the Diploma in Education (Primary) with four who specialised in ECD. The Diploma in Education (Primary) is the minimum professional qualification for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe. The teaching experience of the teachers in satellite school settings ranged from three to 12 years. All the teachers had relevant qualifications and sufficient teaching experience to articulate the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in their respective schools.

5.2.2 Study sites

I conducted the study at four purposively sampled satellite primary schools in Makonde District of Zimbabwe. The schools are coded as Satellite Schools A to D to ensure privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality.

5.2.2.1 Satellite School A

The school had an enrolment of 290 learners comprising 50 ECD learners. Based on the MoPSE teacher-learner ratios stated in Section 3.7.1, the staff establishment of the school was eight teachers. However, there were only five teachers with posts at the school, including the TIC. Thus, the school had an understaffing of three teachers. To enable the five teachers to cope with nine grades, the school adopted MGT. The multi-grade configuration at the school was as follows: ECD A and B; Grade 2 and 3; Grade 4 and 5; as well as Grade 6 and 7. The enrolments of the multi-grade classes were 50, 68, 61, and 56, respectively. The only mono-grade class at the school was Grade 1 with an enrolment of 55 learners. All the classes had admissions that exceeded the recommended MoPSE teacher-learner ratios stated in Section 3.7.1. Henceforth, all the teachers at the school were teaching large classes. The large mono-grade and multi-grade classes posed complexities to the provision of quality education in the school.

Regarding teaching and learning infrastructure, the school had five pole, dagga, and grass-thatched classrooms. There was a critical shortage of accommodation for teachers at the school. The four teachers and the TIC who staffed the school shared only three single-roomed cottages. Blair toilets were also inadequate at the school. There were only eight Blair toilet squat holes for 290 learners, four teachers, and the TIC instead of 15 squat holes. The school did not have a source of safe water within 500m of the school campus as recommended by the MoESAC (2013b) cited in Section 3.7.1. A borehole located 5 km from the school campus was the only source of safe water for both the teachers and learners.

5.2.2.2 Satellite School B

The enrolment of the school was 347 learners comprising 56 ECD learners. The school was entitled to a staff establishment of nine teachers, but only six teachers, including the TIC, staffed the school. Therefore, the school had an understaffing of three teachers. The six teachers in post contended with the nine grades through MGT. There were three multi-grade classes at the school configured as follows: ECD A and B; Grade 1 and 2; as well as Grade 5 and 6. The enrolments of the classes were 56, 63, and 65, respectively. Grade 3, 4 and 7 were mono-grade classes with enrolments of 58, 54, and 50, respectively. Like at Satellite School A, both the mono-grade and multi-grade classes at the school were large.

The school utilised a non-standard classroom block with three classrooms, and a shade with open sides as teaching and learning infrastructure. The ECD A and B multi-grade class used the shade, while the Grade 7 class had its classroom. Seven grades shared the remaining two classrooms through DS. The Grade 1 and 2 multi-grade class shared with the Grade 3 class, while the Grade 4 class shared with the Grade 5 and 6 multi-grade class.

Like at Satellite School A, accommodation for teachers was inadequate. A three-roomed cottage at the school only accommodated two teachers. The other four teachers commuted daily from Chinhoyi Town, which is 45km from the school. A stream located 200 metres from the school premises was the only source of drinking water for both teachers and learners. Drinking unprotected water from the stream makes the teachers and learners susceptible to water-borne diseases. The school had 10 Blair toilet squat holes instead of 15, a set-up that also posed a health threat to the learners and teachers.

5.2.2.3 Satellite School C

The enrolment of the school was 503 learners, comprising 74 ECD learners. The staff establishment of the school was 13 teachers, but only seven teachers including the TIC were in post. Thus, the school had an acute staffing discrepancy of six teachers. The seven teachers coped with the 10 grades at the school through MGT. The configuration of the multi-grade classes was as follows: ECD A and B; Grade 3 and 4; as well as Grade 6 and 7. The enrolments of the multi-grade classes were 74, 103, and 83, respectively. Grades 1, 2, 5A, and 5B were mono-grade classes with enrolments of 68, 65, 54, and 56, respectively. All the classes at the school were very large. The large class sizes posed a threat to the provision of quality education at the school.

The only teaching and learning infrastructure at the school was a tobacco barn that the land beneficiaries had sub-divided into seven classrooms. Accommodation for the teachers and the TIC was indecent. They resided in very small rooms that the former white farm owner used as storerooms and offices. Each teacher occupied only one small room. Although tap water was available at the school, the major challenge in terms of water and sanitation was the critical shortage of ablution facilities. There were 10 Blair toilet squat holes for 503 learners and seven teachers instead of 14 squat holes.

5.2.2.4 Satellite School D

The enrolment of the school was 343 learners, comprising 57 ECD learners. The school is entitled to a staff establishment of 10 teachers. However, only seven teachers, including the TIC, staffed the school. The seven teachers contend with the nine grades at the school through MGT. Like at the three other satellite schools, both the mono-grade and multi-grade classes at the school were very large. The multi-grade classes were organised as follows: ECD A and B; Grade 3 and 4; as well as Grade 6 and 7. The enrolments of the classes were 57, 72, and 75, respectively. Grades 1, 2, and 5 were mono-grade classes with enrolments of 62, 64, and 70, respectively.

The only standard teaching and learning infrastructure at the school was a classroom block that was still under construction. The classroom block had two classrooms that accommodated seven grades through DS. As noted earlier, Satellite School B also practised DS. Under DS, the Grade 2 class shared a classroom with the Grade 3 and 4 multi-grade class, while the Grade 5 class shared with the Grade 6 and 7 multi-grade class. The ECD A and B multi-grade class used a shade with open sides, while the Grade 1 class utilised the garage of the former white farm owner.

The school had adequate and standard ablution facilities for both teachers and learners. Tap water was available within the school campus. Accommodation for teachers was deplorable and indecent. A dilapidated and vandalised farmhouse provided accommodation for all the teachers, and each teacher used one room.

5.3 THEMES, CATEGORIES AND SUB-CATEGORIES

I utilised in-depth interviews and FGIs based on the sub-questions of the study stated in Chapter 1 to generate data for the study from the TICs and teachers, respectively. Then, I organised and analysed the responses of the TICs and teachers to the questions as themes, categories, and sub-categories using TA and CCA. **Table 5.1** presents the themes, categories and sub-categories that emerged from the data.

The following four themes emerged from the data: The nature and quality of pedagogical processes in satellite primary schools; The nature and quality of management processes in satellite primary schools; The management of prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary

schools; and Strategies of improving the quality of education in satellite primary schools. As shown in **Figure 5.1**, each theme has categories also known as sub-themes, and sub-categories.

Table 5.1: Themes, categories and sub-categories

THEMES	CATEGORIES	SUB-CATEGORIES
THEME 1: The nature and quality of pedagogical processes in satellite primary schools	❖ The quality of Multi-grade Teaching ❖ The quality of education in large classes ❖ The quality of education in classes taught by Teachers in Charge ❖ The quality of education in class on Double-sessioning	❖ Teachers ❖ Teachers in Charge
THEME 2: The nature and quality of management processes in satellite primary schools	❖ The quality of management support from School Development Committees ❖ The quality of management support from Teachers in Charge ❖ The quality of management support from Heads of 'mother schools' ❖ The quality of management support from Cluster Heads ❖ The quality of management support from School Inspectors	❖ Teachers ❖ Teachers in Charge
THEME 3: The management of prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools	❖ The management strategies proffered by the teachers ❖ The management strategies proffered by the Teachers in Charge	❖ Teachers ❖ Teachers in Charge
THEME 4: Strategies for improving the quality of education in satellite primary schools	❖ Strategies recommended by the teachers ❖ Strategies recommended by the Teachers in Charge	❖ Teachers ❖ Teachers in Charge

5.3.1 Theme 1: The nature and quality of pedagogical processes in satellite primary schools

This section presents an analysis and discussion of findings generated from the responses of participants to the first sub-question: What is the nature and quality of pedagogical processes in satellite primary schools in the provision of quality education?

5.3.1.1 The quality of Multi-grade Teaching

The findings show that multi-grade classes are prevalent in satellite primary schools. Each satellite school had at least three multi-grade classes. This section presents an analysis and discussion of the quality MGT in satellite primary schools, and its impact on the provision of quality education.

- **The views of teachers on the quality of Multi-grade Teaching**

Regardless of the existence of at least three multi-grade classes at each school, all the teachers and TICs staffing the schools were mono-grade teachers who lacked professional training in MGT. The teachers expressed desperation about teaching multi-grade classes without professional training in multi-grade pedagogy. One of the teachers commented, "*You are just allocated a multi-grade class without pre-service or in-service training in multi-grade teaching, and there is no one to provide you with support or guidance*." Similar sentiments were echoed by another teacher who remarked, *"I was trained to teach mono-grade classes, but I was assigned a multi-grade class. I don't have any idea of how to teach this type of class. Even during teaching practice, I didn't come across this type of class.*" The teachers agreed that they were experiencing challenges in teaching multi-grade classes due to the lack of professional training in multi-grade pedagogy.

It emerged that the national primary school curriculum is based on mono-grade pedagogy. The teachers experience challenges in adapting the mono-grade curriculum to multi-grade settings. One teacher remarked, "*The MoPSE expects us to adapt the mono-grade primary school curriculum and policies to multi-grade settings without training in multi-grade teaching. We have tried it for over 10 years, but failed…*" Another teacher explained the problem in this way, *"Scheme-cum-planning for multi-grade classes using syllabuses, resource books, textbooks, and policies designed for mono-grade classes is very tough for us…at college, we were only trained to scheme and plan for mono-grade classes. If there was in-service training it would have been better.*" The term scheme-cum-plan book is used in Zimbabwe's education system to refer to a

combination of the scheme of work and lesson plans into one record book. When probed, the participants revealed that they prepare separate scheme-cum-plan books and record books for each grade constituting a multi-grade class. One of the teachers commented, "*We spend a lot of time scheme-cum-planning and maintaining record books for two grades, the workload is unbearable."*

It also emerged that the multi-grade classes in the schools follow mono-grade teaching timetables. In other words, the teaching timetables for multi-grade classes are based on mono-grade pedagogy. The teachers unanimously indicated that utilising mono-grade teaching timetables in multi-grade settings create instructional time constraints. One teacher aptly expressed the problem in this way, "*The time allocated to one lesson period in a mono-grade class is shared equally between the two grades in a multi-grade class. The instructional time is insufficient for effective teaching and learning to occur. Teachers always fail to complete the syllabuses of multi-grade classes*…" Most teachers cope with the timetabling challenge by teaching the curriculum content of senior grades in multi-grade classes. "*This creates learning gaps in learners in the junior grades that affect their mastery of concepts in higher grades*", explained another teacher.

The teachers identified grade combinations in multi-grade classes as the other challenge they confront in teaching such classes. One teacher remarked that "*I'm having serious problems in teaching an ECD A and B multi-grade class…at college I was never trained to teach a multi-grade class…I attempted to teach the two grades separately, but how to control the other class is always a challenge…I'm teaching ECD B curriculum content to both grades*." Expressing similar sentiments another teacher commented, *"It's possible to combine ECD A and ECD B learners, but our problem is that we were only trained to teach mono-grade classes…because of lack of in-service training in multi-grade teaching we teach both grades ECD B curriculum content.*" It is evident that the teachers lacked both pre-service and in-service training in multi-grade pedagogy to teach multi-grade classes effectively.

The teachers were also worried about the Grade 2 and Grade 3 multi-grade class. One teacher complained, "*Grade 2 learners must be taught in their mother tongue Chishona…Grade 3 learners who are on the transition from mother tongue to English must be taught in English. I'm forced to teach both classes in Chishona to cater to the Grade 2 learners. What do you expect me to do without training in multi-grade teaching*…?" Another teacher interjected, *"If Chishona is used as*

the language of instruction…the transition of the Grade 3 learners from mother tongue to English is impeded. The Grade 3 learners will fail to master concepts in higher grades where the language of instruction in all learning areas is English except for indigenous languages." When asked which curriculum content she was teaching, the teacher responded by saying, *"Due to lack of training in multi-grade teaching, I'm teaching Grade 3 curriculum content to both grades*." This means that the whole Grade 2 curriculum is not covered, and the learners are taught the Grade 3 curriculum content that is above their level of cognitive development. The learning backlogs that are created among the Grade 2 learners, negatively affect their mastery of concepts as they progress with the primary school cycle.

The findings show that examinable and non-examinable grades are combined into multi-grade classes. The teachers reported that Grade 7, which is an examinable grade, is combined with Grade 6, which is a non-examinable grade. One teacher revealed that "…*because of examination pressure, teachers teach the Grade 7 curriculum content to both grades. If they teach the curriculum content of both grades, they fail to complete the Grade 7 syllabus, and the learners are inadequately prepared for the examination*…." This pedagogical practice was mentioned during the FGIs at each of the four study sites. The teachers need in-service training in multi-grade pedagogy to equip them with the requisite skills to teach multi-grade classes effectively.

The findings show that the teachers experience challenges in assessing learners of different grade levels in multi-grade classes. One teacher revealed, "*I'm teaching a Grade 3 and Grade 4 multi-grade class. I teach both grades the Grade 4 curriculum content and assign them assignment tasks. I make sure that Grade 4 learners attempt more questions than Grade 3 learner*s." When probed about the level of difficulty of the assignment tasks, the teacher indicated that the questions would be of the same level of difficulty. Further probing revealed that the teachers assign the learners similar assignment tasks because they teach them the same content.

It emerged that some teachers attempt to integrate curriculum content and differentiate assignment tasks in multi-grade classes. This became apparent when one teacher said, "*I'm teaching an ECD A and ECD B multi-grade class. When I realise that the learning content is too complex for the ECD A learners, I try to differentiate both the learning content and assignment tasks, but the major challenge is that I lack induction or in-service training in multi-grade teaching.*" The other

teachers acknowledged that they occasionally attempt to differentiate content and assignment tasks, particularly on very challenging concepts. They emphasised that their main challenge is the lack of pre-service or in-service training in multi-grade pedagogy.

The teachers were very concerned that School Inspectors expect them to scheme-cum-plan separately for multi-grade classes, integrate the content when teaching, and then differentiate assignment tasks. One teacher complained, "*This approach isn't practical at all…School Inspectors should demonstrate how it works in real practise…*" Another teacher argued that, "*Content differentiation is a process that should start with scheming-cum-planning, not learner assessment…that's why most teachers teach the curriculum content of senior grades in multi-grade classes and assign all learners assessment tasks based on the same curriculum.*" Thus, the teachers handle multi-grade classes as mono-grade classes in terms of learning content and assessment tasks owing to the lack of training in multi-grade pedagogy.

The practice of teaching learners in multi-grade classes the curriculum content of the senior grade disadvantages the learners in the junior grade in the end of term tests. This problem was clearly expressed by one teacher as follows, *"Cluster Resource Centres prepare common end of term tests for schools in their clusters. The tests are based on the curriculum content of each grade-level…*" The same teacher further went on to say, *"Learners in the junior grades of multi-grade classes perform dismally in the tests because the curriculum content of their grade levels is not covered when teachers focus on teaching the content of senior grades.*" This problem was raised during the FGIs at each of the four study sites.

❖ **The views of Teachers in Charge on the quality of Multi-grade Teaching**

The TICs authenticated the sentiments of the teachers that multi-grade classes are quite prevalent in satellite schools. One TIC explained, "*Multi-grade classes have always been predominant in satellite schools owing to low learner enrolments. These classes recently increased significantly due to the problem of understaffing that was caused by the Teacher Recruitment Freeze implemented by the PSC in 2015.*" The TICs reported that understaffing forces some satellite schools to continue with multi-grade classes regardless of class enrolments that warrant all grades to be mono-grade classes. In this regard, understaffing associated with the TRF is fuelling the prevalence of multi-grade classes in satellite primary schools.

The TICs also experience challenges in teaching multi-grade classes due to the lack of training in multi-grade pedagogy. One of the TICs complained, "*I'm a mono-grade teacher who was appointed as a TIC without in-service training in multi-grade teaching*…" Another TIC lamented, "*I was trained to teach mono-grade classes, but upon deployment to this school, I came across a multi-grade class for the first time…no one inducts you into multi-grade teaching*…" The other TICs corroborated that they were mono-grade teachers who lack professional training in MGT. By implication, the TICs are not able to provide MGT support to the teachers in multi-grade settings, in the respective satellite primary schools that they lead.

The findings also show that the TICs face challenges in adapting the mono-grade primary school curriculum to multi-grade settings. Concerning this challenge, one TIC remarked, "*The ministry expects us to adapt the mono-grade primary school curriculum policies, syllabuses, timetables, and textbooks to multi-grade settings without in-service training in multi-grade teaching…we have tried it for two decades now…it's not working…*" The TICs expressed the concern that without in-service training in MGT, they find it difficult to adapt the mono-grade primary school curriculum to multi-grade settings. Another TIC sarcastically remarked that "*The teachers expect us to induct them into multi-grade teaching when we never received such induction from the Heads of the 'mother schools' and School Inspectors*." If both the TICs and teachers lack pre-service and in-service training in MGT, the pedagogical transactions in multi-grade classes are unlikely to be of good quality.

I probed the TICs to identify the other challenges they face in their attempts to adapt the mono-grade curriculum to multi-grade settings. One of the TICs responded by saying "*…integrating the curriculum content of multi-grade classes when scheme-cum planning is a problem in the whole district…this is the reason why the district policy is that we should prepare separate scheme-cum-plans for all the grades constituting a multi-grade class*." These sentiments were echoed by another TIC who went on to reveal, "*Lack of content integration expertise is forcing most TICs and teachers to teach the curriculum content of senior grades in multi-grade classes*." Arguably, this pedagogical practice disadvantages learners in the junior grades of multi-grade classes.

All the TICs mentioned the problem of teaching timetables for multi-grade classes. One of the TICs complained, "*For two decades we have failed to design multi-grade teaching timetables…we*

are using mono-grade teaching timetables. The problem with the mono-grade teaching timetables is that you share the time for one lesson period equally between two grades and you fail to complete the syllabuses of both grades." The same TIC went on to reveal that, *"Teachers are avoiding this problem either by focusing on teaching examinable learning areas or teaching the curriculum of the higher grade to both grades*." Similar sentiments were expressed by another TIC who said that the mono-grade teaching timetables influence TICs and teachers to treat multi-grade classes as mono-grade classes in terms of learning content and assessment tasks. If the multi-grade class is treated as a mono-grade class, the curriculum content of one grade is not covered, and the learners at that grade level are disadvantaged.

The TICs verified the sentiments of the teachers that some grade combinations in multi-grade classes create challenges in teaching and managing the classes. One TIC identified the combination of Grade 6 and 7. This TIC emphasised that "*Grade 7 is an examinable class…it should not be combined with another grade…the teachers have the tendency of focusing on teaching the curriculum content of the examinable grade and ignoring the content of the junior grade*." The TICs agreed that ECD A and B, Grades 2 and 3, as well as Grades 6 and 7, are not supposed to be combined. When I asked what determines grade combinations one of the TICs responded by saying, "*There is no grade combination policy in place…the nature of the enrolment pattern is the major factor that influences schools to come up with grade combinations.*" The other TICs agreed that there was no official grade combination policy in the district. They emphasised that each school combines grades according to its situation.

It emerged from the in-depth interviews with the TICs that the teachers hold negative attitudes towards multi-grade classes. This became apparent when one TIC revealed that, "*I always experience challenges when allocating classes to teachers. No teacher is willing to be allocated a multi-grade class. They consider multi-grade classes as more demanding to teach than mono-grade classes."* The sentiments of this TIC were reiterated by another TIC who said, "*The burden of teaching two curricula, maintaining two sets of professional record books, and marking two sets of termly tests influence teachers to hold negative attitudes towards multi-grade classes*." The negative teacher attitudes towards multi-grade classes can be traced to the lack of training in multi-grade pedagogy. Such attitudes affect the teacher's commitment and quality of instruction, compromising the provision of quality education in multi-grade classes.

5.3.1.2 The quality of education in large classes

It emerged from the study that the problem of large class size is rife in satellite primary schools. All the teachers and TICs who participated in the study were either teaching large mono-grade classes or large multi-grade classes.

- **The views of teachers on the quality of education in large classes**

The class sizes in the schools exceeded the recommended MoPSE teacher-learner ratios of 1:20 at ECD level and 1:40 from Grade 1 to 7 cited in MoESAC (2013b) in Chapter 3. When I asked the teachers why the class sizes were large, one teacher responded by saying, "*The teacher-learner ratios are as high as 1:74; 1:83; and 1:103. What we regard as the smallest class has 54 learners.*" The same teacher further continued to say, *"The classes are abnormally large due to the Teacher Recruitment Freeze that was implemented by the PSC in 2015. The recruitment freeze has resulted in severe understaffing and large classes.*" Another teacher complained, "*I'm teaching an ECD A and ECD B multi-grade class of 57 learners instead of the recommended mono-grade ECD class size of 20 learners. My class is almost treble the recommended class size...I'm severely overwhelmed*." All the teachers complained that class sizes in the schools are too large for effective teaching and learning to occur.

The teachers proffered the pedagogical challenges they encounter in teaching large classes. They indicated that large class sizes result in overcrowded classrooms that are not ideal for displaying instructional media and establishing learning centres. One teacher complained, "*I teach 57 ECD A and ECD B learners in a small shade without side walls. I can't display charts and learners' work because there are no walls. The classroom is so small that there is hardly any space to establish learning centres*." Another teacher revealed that learners destroy classroom displays and learning centres in overcrowded classrooms. Most teachers are no longer displaying instructional media and establishing learning centres due to the lack of space in the congested classrooms. When probed about the impact of a bare classroom environment on learners, one teacher responded by saying, "*A classroom environment without charts and learning centres denies learners opportunities for independent learning and revision of learnt concepts.*" Arguably, such a classroom environment is not ideal for the provision of quality education.

Zimbabwe's updated primary school curriculum stipulates that teachers should employ learner-centred pedagogical approaches. However, it emerged from the findings that congested classrooms compel teachers to use teacher-centred pedagogical approaches. Regarding this problem, one teacher said, "*The classrooms are overcrowded, there is hardly any space to hold group discussions…the only available option is to employ teacher-centred methods…*" Echoing similar sentiments another teacher commented "*Congested classrooms are not ideal for learner-centred approaches…there is limited space for learners to work in groups or pairs. Although the lecture method isn't encouraged by the MoPSE, it's the most viable teaching method under these circumstances.*" Most teachers who participated in the FGIs reiterated the inapplicability of learner-centred approaches in overcrowded classrooms. When I probed the teachers about the impact of teacher-centred pedagogical approaches on the provision of quality education, one teacher responded by saying, "*Teacher-centred methods promote passive learning as opposed to active learning that promotes effective learning."* The other teachers concurred that if teachers utilise teacher-centred pedagogical approaches, learners are not actively involved in the teaching and learning process, and they easily forget taught concepts.

Another impediment to the provision of quality education in large classes that emerged in all the FGIs is the critical shortage of textbooks for the updated school curriculum. One teacher lamented, "*In the core-learning areas of Mathematics, English, Shona and Science, most satellite schools received only one textbook per grade from their 'mother schools'…*" Another teacher revealed that textbooks for non-core learning areas of the updated curriculum are not available in the schools. The teachers repeatedly mentioned the severe shortage of textbooks in large classes during the FGI sessions.

I asked the teachers how they teach core-learning areas with only one textbook for each learning area per grade-level. One teacher responded by saying, *"The situation is pathetic. In most cases, the teacher only has a textbook. Learners have no opportunities to take textbooks home to study or do homework."* The same teacher further continued to say that, learners are denied opportunities to read for themselves, effectively making the teacher their only source of knowledge. The teachers complained about the problem of teaching reading and comprehension skills to 50 or more learners using only one English or Shona textbook. One teacher said, *"It's impossible to effectively develop reading and comprehension skills in 103 learners with just one textbook…*." The other teachers

corroborated this challenge. They expressed the concern that a significant number of learners in satellite schools are non-readers, mainly because of the dire shortage of English and Shona textbooks.

I asked the teachers how they teach non-core learning areas without textbooks. They replied by saying that meaningful learning was not taking place in non-core learning areas owing to the unavailability of textbooks for both teachers and learners. In the words of one teacher, *"Without textbooks, teaching guides, and access to the internet, the teacher's content depth in non-core learning areas is very limited."* Another teacher concurred that the content knowledge of teachers in non-core learning areas is shallow because the syllabus is their sole source of teaching and learning content. The unavailability of textbooks makes it extremely hard for the teachers to teach new learning areas of the updated school curriculum such as VPA, Mass Displays, and ICT. "*Teachers skip unfamiliar content in new learning areas owing to the unavailability of textbooks*", remarked one teacher. If some concepts are not covered, then the academic achievement of the learners is affected negatively.

The other challenge that the teachers confront in teaching large classes is heavy marking loads. One teacher remarked *"My class has 83 learners…it's very large. I assign the learners three or four written items instead of the recommended minimum of 10 items per subject. If I assign them the recommended number of assignment items, I won't be able to complete marking the assignments before the next lesson."* The same teacher went on to say that he was assigning the learners very few assignment items that are easy to mark as a strategy of coping with the heavy making loads. Another teacher who was teaching 65 learners said, "*We are expected to assign the learners two compositions per week, that is, one in English and another one in Shona. It's practically impossible to meet this requirement with a large class size of 65 learners. I only manage to assign the learners one composition per month in each subject*." All the teachers mentioned the problem of heavy marking loads. They agreed that assigning learners a few assignment items that are easy to mark was a common strategy of contending with heavy marking loads in the schools.

When I probed the teachers about the impact of a few assignment items on learning, one teacher responded by saying, "…*assigning learners very few assignment items, deny them the opportunity*

to adequately practice and master learnt concepts and skills." The teachers agreed that very few assignment items do not provide learners with enough opportunities to practise and master new concepts. It is apparent from the responses of the teachers that inadequate assignment items do not enhance the mastery of concepts by learners.

The teachers find it problematic to offer individualised support to learners in large classes. They reported that large class sizes make the classrooms so congested that teachers cannot move around to provide personalised support to the learners. One teacher who was teaching 77 learners complained, *"My class is so overcrowded that I can't move around to offer learners individualised support…it's a serious challenge to identify all the learners who need individual attention in the congested classrooms."* Another teacher who was teaching 74 ECD A and ECD B learners put it this way, "*My class is more than treble the size of a standard ECD class of 20 learners. The class is very large for one teacher to offer individualised support to all the learners. I only manage to cater to the individual needs of a few learners.*" The challenge of catering for the individual needs of learners in large classes was aptly expressed by another teacher. The teacher said, "*There are fewer chances of a learner getting individual attention from the teacher in a large class than a small class…large class size forces teachers to focus on teaching fast learners…*"

The teachers proffered how lack of individualised support affects slow learners in large classes. In the words of one teacher, "*Learners who require remedial support are not identified, and they move to higher grades without mastering lower grade concepts…the learners usually lag in their school work.*" The teachers agreed that the lack of individualised support retards the intellectual development of learners particularly those with learning difficulties.

The findings indicate that large classes are characterised by disruptive learner behaviours that militate against the provision of quality education. The teachers complained that the large and overcrowded classes are so chaotic that teachers spend more time managing learner behaviours than teaching. One teacher complained, "*The level of noise in the large classes is too much, especially by learners who sit at the back. They know that you can't squeeze through the overcrowded classroom to get to them…so they are always making noise. Learners who want to learn can't concentrate because of the noise*." Cases of fighting, bullying, destruction of pedagogical resources, arguments, pushing, shoving, theft of stationery, learners not doing

assignments, and absenteeism were reported to be rife in the overcrowded classrooms. The sentiments of the teachers suggest that congested classrooms are not favourable ambiences for the provision of quality education.

❖ **The views of Teachers in Charge on quality of education in large classes**

The TICs confirmed the sentiments of the teachers that the phenomenon of large class size in satellite schools was a consequence of the TRF reviewed in Chapter 3. They verified the concerns of the teachers that large class sizes pose pedagogical challenges to the provision of quality education in satellite schools. In the words of one TIC, "…*classroom displays and learning centres are always damaged by learners because the classrooms are overcrowded*…" All the TICs expressed the concern that the teachers teaching large classes no longer display instructional media and establish learning centres in their classrooms.

Another TIC complained about the inapplicability of learner-centred pedagogy in congested classrooms. The TIC said, "*It's very difficult to utilise child-centred approaches in overcrowded classrooms when there is only one updated curriculum textbook for over 40 learners…most teachers are using teacher-centred approaches*." This confirms two findings from the FGIs with teachers. Firstly, the teachers teaching large classes employ teacher-centred pedagogical approaches. Secondly, the textbook-learner ratio is very high in satellite primary schools. Another TIC affirmed the views of the teachers when she said, "*The critical shortage of updated curriculum textbooks is posing challenges in the teaching of reading and comprehension…in non-core learning areas where there are no textbooks, the content that the teachers teach lack depth and detail*. *If we had computers and internet access it would have been better*." The TICs urged the government to provide satellite schools with adequate updated curriculum textbooks.

The TICs echoed the sentiments of the teachers that heavy marking loads pose complexities to the provision of quality education in the large classes. "*The teachers are assigning learners fewer written assignments items than stipulated by the MoPSE as a mechanism of coping with heavy marking loads*", remarked one TIC. The learners are denied enough opportunities to practise and master new concepts. Henceforth, learners with learning difficulties may fail to master the concepts.

Like the teachers, the TICs were concerned that overcrowded classrooms make the provision of individualised support to learners problematic. One TIC put it this way, "*Our non-standard classrooms are overcrowded because of very large class sizes. There is no space for teachers to move around to assess the mastery of concepts by the learners, and provide remedial support and extension work.*" Another TIC said it was difficult for teachers to identify all the learners who require individualised support in the large and overcrowded classes and offer them support. The TICs concurred that if learners with learning difficulties do not receive individualised support, their learning progress is hampered.

The TICs corroborated the sentiments of the teachers that learner behavioural problems in large classes militate against the provision of quality education in satellite schools. One of the TICs lamented, "*The class sizes are so large that teachers are preoccupied with addressing the behavioural problems of the learners than teaching.*" Another TIC remarked that managing disruptive learner behaviours in large classes reduces instructional time and compromises curriculum coverage. All the TICs blamed the TRF for the large, congested, chaotic, and unmanageable classes.

5.3.1.3 The quality of education in classes taught by Teachers in Charge

All the TICs who participated in the study were teaching principals. They have the dual role of teaching a class and leading the school.

- **The views of teachers on the quality of education in classes taught by Teachers in Charge**

It emerged from the interviews that TICs are pushed more into school administration than teaching their classes. One of the teachers remarked, "*The TIC's class is not learning much…most of the time the TIC is away attending meetings and workshops.*" Another teacher who echoed similar sentiments said, "*…a lot of instructional time is lost when the TIC is attending to visitors, doing office work or supervising teachers…the class proceeds to the next grade without completing the syllabuses of the previous grade*." All the teachers reiterated that school leadership and management responsibilities take up most of the learning time of the TIC's class. The teachers appealed to the MoPSE to appoint non-teaching heads to lead satellite schools so that each class has its teacher.

The findings indicate that TICs assign learners very few assignment items due to school leadership and management responsibilities. One of the teachers remarked, "*TICs assign learners very few assignment items because they are overwhelmed by school leadership and administration responsibilities…if they had bursars or secretaries it would have been better…*" The other teachers raised similar sentiments. I probed the teachers about the impact of assigning learners very few assignment items. One teacher responded by saying that the learners are accorded limited chances of practising and mastering new concepts and skills.

The teachers expressed the concern that school leadership and management responsibilities leave TICs with limited time to offer individualised support to the learners they teach. One teacher put it this way, "*TICs have multiple school management responsibilities…they scarcely have time to cater for the individual needs of the learners they teach.*" Echoing similar sentiments, another teacher said, "*Most of the time TICs are too busy with school administration duties, they don't find time to offer remedial support to the learners in their classes*…" If learners are not offered remedial support, they experience challenges in mastering concepts and lag in school work.

When I asked the teachers how the TIC's class is handled when he or she is away on school business, one teacher said, "*The TIC usually leaves me with assignments tasks for his class, but I'm forced to focus more on my class because it's an examination class."* Another teacher said, "*The teachers who are assigned to supervise the TIC's class are in the habit of 'babysitting' the class because they are already overburdened by their large mono-grade classes or large multi-grade classes*." Through probing, I learnt that 'babysitting' the TIC's class means occupying the class without meaningful teaching and learning taking place. This confirms earlier claims by the teachers that the quality of education in the TIC's class is poor.

- **The views of Teachers in Charge on the quality of education in classes taught by Teachers in Charge**

The TICs indicated that they perform the conflicting roles of school administration and teaching a class. "*Although our school administration roles are similar to those of Non-teaching School Heads, we have full-time classes to teach*", complained one TIC. All the TICs raised this problem during the interviews. They corroborated the sentiments of the teachers that the school administration and management responsibilities that they perform interfere with their teaching

role. In the words of one TIC, "*We supervise teachers, attend meetings, attend to visitors, and make submissions to the District Office. All these roles leave us with limited instructional time for our classes.*" Another TIC complained, "*You are always disturbed during lessons to attend to office work…when parents or visitors arrive at the school, you can't ask them to wait for you as you teach…you attend to them and the class loses a lot of instructional time.*" All the TICs complained that they are stressed by performing school administration and teaching roles consecutively. "*There is never enough time to perform school administration and management duties or teach your class*", remarked one TIC.

It also emerged from the findings that parents are against the arrangement by the MoPSE of TICs performing the dual role of school administration and teaching a class. The TICs reported that parents want the MoPSE to appoint Non-teaching School Heads (NTSHs) to lead satellite schools so that each class has its teacher. When probed, one TIC commented that "…*it will be a positive development…no class will lose instructional time because the TIC is attending to school administration responsibilities. School administration in satellite schools strengthens, and the quality of education improves*…" The other TICs reiterated similar sentiments and urged the MoPSE to appoint NTSHs to lead satellite schools.

5.3.1.4 The quality of education in classes on Double-sessioning

Some satellite primary schools adopted the DS schooling system to cope with the problem of inadequate teaching and learning space. The findings show that DS creates complexities to the provision of quality education in the schools.

- **The views of teachers on the quality of education in classes on Double-sessioning**

The teachers reported that some satellite primary schools adopted DS as a strategy to cope with the problem of inadequate classrooms. At one school, one teacher explained DS in this way, "*Our lessons start at 8 am for all classes including those on Double-sessioning. All the classes at this school commence lessons at the same time with some classes in the classrooms and others outside in the shades of trees.*" Another teacher concurred and elaborated that, "*The change-over-time is 11 am for all the classes on Double-sessioning. Lessons end at 1 pm for all the classes except for*

ECD A, ECD B, Grade 1, and Grade 2 learners whose lessons end at 12 pm." The teachers at the other school that practised DS for the same reason mentioned similar timelines.

The teachers expressed the pedagogical challenges that DS presents in the schools. They complained about inadequate furniture for the learners. Concerning this problem, one teacher said, "*We only have sufficient benches and tables for learners to use when they are in the classrooms. There is no furniture for learners to use when we hold lessons outside in the shades of trees. Learners sit on timber logs, rocks, bricks, pieces of cloth, and even on the ground.*" The teachers also indicated that there are no tables for the learners to use. When probed about the impact of the improvised sitting places on learning, one teacher said, *"The pain from sitting on logs, rocks, bricks and the ground is excruciating…it distracts learners from participating and concentrating on learning*." Sitting places such as rocks, bricks, timber logs, and the ground do not provide the kind of comfort that is required for a learner to learn effectively.

The teachers are not able to assign learners written assignments for the lessons they conduct in the shades of trees due to the unavailability of proper sitting and writing places. One teacher who said, "*We don't assign learners written assignments for the five lessons we teach in the shades of trees because without furniture, textbooks and exercise books get dirty and torn*", cogently explained this problem. The teachers indicated that the lack of furniture leads to poor and illegible handwriting by the learners. When probed about the issue of assignments, one teacher responded by saying, "*We focus on teaching practical and oral lessons and assign learners written assignments when they get the opportunity to use the classrooms from 11 am to 1 pm.*" The findings indicate that this practice presents challenges to the teachers. One challenge that most teachers mentioned is that the learners end up doing written assignments in only three learning areas per day instead of the minimum set standard of five learning areas. Another teacher expressed the complexity of the problem in this way, "*Classes on Double-sessioning are in the classroom for only two hours, that is, from 11 am to 1 pm. In those two hours, they are expected to do written assignments for the five lessons that they do before getting into the classroom, and for four other lessons they do in the classroom.*" The same teacher further continued to say that, *"The instructional time in the classroom is inadequate…that's why most teachers focus on teaching examinable learning areas.*" Another teacher concurred and added, *"The instructional time in the classroom is so limited that you can hardly offer remedial support to all learners…you are forced*

by time constraints to concentrate on teaching fast learners." All the teachers agreed that most teachers do not offer individual support to learners with learning difficulties in the classes on Double-sessioning due to limited instructional time in the classroom.

The teachers also expressed concern about the lack of chalkboards or whiteboards when conducting lessons under the shades of trees. One teacher complained, "*…there are no mobile chalkboards or whiteboards to explain or demonstrate new concepts…it's difficult for learners to master new concepts and skills*…" The teachers agreed that the shades of trees are not conducive milieus for the provision of quality education.

The teachers identified the transitional period of the DS schooling system as another problem that contributes to limited instructional time in the classroom for classes on DS. The transitional period refers to the change-over-time for classes on DS. They indicated that a lot of instructional time is lost during the interim period. In the words of one teacher, "*The transitional period is held during the 1100am to 1130am lesson period and about 20 minutes is lost daily to allow the class going out to clean the room and pack books…10 more minutes are lost to allow dust in the swept classrooms to settle down.*" Another teacher who said, "*A whole lesson period of 30 minutes is lost during the transitional period*", corroborated this problem. The teachers were in consensus that delays during the transitional period cut into the already limited instructional time in the classroom for the classes on DS. The result, as reported by the teachers, is that learners are taught examinable learning areas at the expense of non-examinable learning areas.

The findings show that DS is disrupted by rains, particularly during the rainy season. One teacher said, "*When it rains all the learners from ECD A to Grade 7 find shelter in the classrooms. The classrooms become so overcrowded and noisy that no effective teaching and learning can take place. Lessons only resume when the rain stops*." Another teacher added, "*If it rains the whole day, no learning takes place…*" The instructional time that is lost during the rainy season compromises syllabus coverage and the overall quality of education in classes on DS.

❖ **The views of Teachers in Charge on the quality of education in classes on Double-sessioning**

The TICs corroborated the sentiments of the teachers that some satellite schools introduced DS to cope with the problem of inadequate classrooms. They echoed the sentiments of the teachers that conducting lessons in the shades of trees compromise the quality of education in classes on DS. One TIC remarked, "*When teachers hold lessons in the shades of trees, the attention of the learners is distracted by people, animals or vehicles passing by…effective teaching and learning cannot take place under these conditions…*" Another TIC complained that the pain from sitting on timber logs, rocks, bricks, and the ground lowers learners' levels of concentration and motivation to learn.

The TICs acknowledged the sentiments of the teachers that limited instructional time in the classroom militates against the provision of quality education in classes on DS. One TIC explained the problem in this way, "*Classes on Double-sessioning have three hours of instructional time in the classroom if they start lessons in the classroom and only two hours if they start lessons outside the classroom…while infant and junior classes that are not on Double-sessioning have four and five hours, respectively.*" The same TIC further continued to say that, *"The instructional time in the classroom is insufficient to cover nine by thirty-minute lesson periods per day…instructional time constraints are forcing teachers to only teach examinable learning areas.*" The other TICs verified that limited instructional time in the classroom compels most teachers to teach only four out of the nine timetabled lessons per day.

All the TICs shared the sentiments of the teachers that limited instructional time in the classroom makes it difficult for teachers to offer individualised support to learners. One TIC remarked, "*Owing to the problem of limited instructional time in the classroom, most teachers ignore providing individual support to slow learners and concentrate on teaching fast learners*". The other TICs raised the same problem. They all urged the government to address the problem of DS by providing funds for satellite schools to construct adequate classrooms.

The TICs agreed with the teachers that the instructional time in the classroom for classes on DS is reduced during the change-over time. One of the TICs commented, "*The change-over-time often takes 20 to 30 minutes…and instructional time in the classroom for classes on DS is reduced from two hours to only one and half hours…teachers are failing to complete syllabuses of their classes*

due to inadequate instructional time." The TICs corroborated the sentiments of the teachers that a lot of instructional time is lost during the rainy season when rains disrupt the DS system. They appealed to the government to assist parents by constructing adequate classroom blocks in satellite schools.

❖ Discussion

The study corroborates existing studies by the PoZ (2012) and Mutema (2014) cited in Chapters 1 and 3 that multi-grade classes are prevalent in satellite primary schools. Multi-grade classes increased significantly in this school type following the TRF implemented by the PSC in 2015. However, the existing studies did not explore the ramifications of multi-grade classes on the provision of quality education in satellite schools. This created a knowledge gap on the nature and quality of MGT in satellite schools and its impact on the provision of quality education.

Regardless of the prevalence of multi-grade classes in satellite primary schools, all the teachers and TICs staffing the schools are mono-grade teachers. This problem originates from teacher development programmes in Zimbabwe that exclusively focus on training mono-grade teachers. The pre-service and in-service training that the teachers undergo does not equip them with the theoretical and practical aspects of multi-grade pedagogy. In this regard, I described the teacher development programmes as 'multi-grade blind'. They are 'blind' to the need for multi-grade teachers in satellite primary schools and other small schools in the country. This problem is not peculiar to Zimbabwe. In most African countries, pre-service and continuing teacher development programmes do not expose teachers to multi-grade pedagogy (Brown, 2010; Taole & Mncube, 2012; Kivunja, 2014; Siririka, 2018). In their SEM reviewed in Chapter 2, Heneveld and Craig (1996) underscore that appropriate teacher development programmes are indispensable supporting inputs for school effectiveness. Henceforth, there is a need for multi-grade teacher development programmes in African countries, including Zimbabwe to enhance the provision of quality education in small rural schools with multi-grade classes.

The national primary school curriculum, policies, and instructional materials premised on mono-grade pedagogy further complicate the implementation of MGT in satellite schools. It is a daunting task for mono-grade teachers to adapt the national mono-grade curriculum to multi-grade settings without professional training in multi-grade pedagogy. A national multi-grade primary school

curriculum is also non-existent in other African countries such as South Africa (Taole & Mncube, 2012; Joubert, 2010), Uganda and Zambia (Kivunja, 2014) and Nambia (Haingura, 2014; Siririka, 2018). This is why Little (2006b) cited in Chapter 3 argues that MGT is an invisible pedagogical approach at the administrative level in most African countries.

According to Taole and Mncube (2012) cited in Chapter 3, there is a taken-for-granted assumption in most African countries that mono-grade teachers can adapt to multi-grade pedagogy without pre-service or in-service training. The findings of this study contradict this taken-for-granted assumption. Even teachers and TICs with more than 10 years of teaching experience in multi-grade settings experience challenges in adapting the mono-grade curriculum to multi-grade settings. They teach the curriculum content of the senior grade of a multi-grade class and neglect the content of the junior grade. Learners in the junior grades of multi-grade classes experience learning backlogs that affect their progress and performance negatively. The same problem is reported in studies held by Mansor (2011) in Pakistan as well as du Plessis and Subramanien (2014) in South Africa. For mono-grade teachers to teach multi-grade classes effectively, they should be professionally trained in the theoretical and practical skills of multi-grade pedagogy (Brown, 2010; Kivunja & Sims, 2015).

The study corroborates the observation by Haingura (2014) and Siririka (2018) in Namibia that teaching timetables in multi-grade settings are based on mono-grade pedagogy. The teachers in multi-grade settings utilise mono-grade teaching timetables to teach multi-grade classes. The instructional time for one lesson period in a mono-grade class is shared equally between the grades constituting a multi-grade class. Consequently, the instructional time is reduced, making it impossible for teachers to complete the syllabuses of multi-grade classes. Zimbabwe's primary school curriculum is spiral. Henceforth, the uncovered content impedes the learners' mastery of concepts in the higher grades of the primary school cycle. In their SEM reviewed in Chapter 2, Heneveld and Craig (1996), underline that adequate instructional time is a fundamental enabling condition for school effectiveness. The problem of timetabling can be traced to the 'multi-grade blindness' of teacher development programmes and the national primary school curriculum framework in Zimbabwe.

Due to instructional time constraints caused by following mono-grade teaching timetables in multi-grade settings, some teachers teach examinable learning areas only. Linden (2001) cited in Chapter 3 argues that when teachers focus on teaching examinable areas, the curriculum is 'narrowed' and learners are disadvantaged. Most teachers follow the mono-grade teaching timetable and teach the curriculum content of the senior grade in a multi-grade class. Resultantly, the curriculum of the junior grade is not covered. The gap in content coverage that is created affects the learners' mastery of concepts and academic achievement in subsequent grades. Similar timetabling challenges were noted in studies of MGT in other African countries (Haingura, 2014; Kivunja, 2014; Gasa, 2016) reviewed in Chapter 3.

The combination of grades in multi-grade classes is another problem that creates complexities to the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. Grades with curricula content that cannot be integrated are combined into multi-grade classes. For instance, Grade 2 and 3 learners who should be respectively taught in their mother tongue and English are combined into a multi-grade class. The multi-grade class is treated as a mono-grade class in terms of the language of instruction, and one grade is disadvantaged. Taole (2014b) cited in Chapter 3 reports the same pedagogical practice in a study of MGT in South African schools. The study also corroborates findings by Kivunja (2014) in Uganda and Lingam (2007) in Fiji that examination and non-examination grades are combined. In this study, the schools combined Grade 7, and Grade 6, which are examinable and non-examinable grades, respectively. The evidence from this study and the existing studies show that examination pressure compels teachers to focus on teaching the curriculum content of the examination grade. In this study, the Grade 6 learners were taught Grade 7 curriculum content that was difficult for them. This pedagogical practice militates against the learning progress and academic achievement of the Grade 6 learners. The incompatible grade combinations emanate from the absence of a national multi-grade curriculum framework and policies to guide schools on how to handle multi-grade combinations.

According to Taole (2017) cited in Chapter 3, teachers in multi-grade settings are expected to engage in multi-level assessment of learners' progress against prescribed syllabus outcomes and maintain separate assessment records for each grade. In this study, teachers maintained separate assessment record books for each grade but assigned the learners similar tasks based on the curriculum content of the senior grades. Consequently, the learners in junior grades of multi-grade

classes underachieve in cluster and termly tests that are based on the curriculum content of their grade levels. They underachieve because the curricula content of their grade levels are not covered when teachers focus on teaching the curricula content of senior grades in multi-grade classes. The teachers employ mono-grade learner assessment systems in multi-grade settings. Hargreaves (2001 in Brown, 2010) cited in Chapter 2 corroborates that, teachers experience challenges in adapting mono-grade learner assessment systems to multi-grade settings without professional training in MGT. This is unlike in South Africa, where Taole (2014a) and Mulaudzi (2016) concur that mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings assess learners according to the prescribed syllabus outcomes of their grade levels. This is a result of pre-set assessment tasks for each grade that teachers in South Africa are provided under the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (Gasa, 2016; Mulaudzi, 2016). Zimbabwe can adopt this approach to learner assessment to enhance the provision of quality education in multi-grade settings.

Negative teacher attitudes towards multi-grade classes also impede the provision of quality education in multi-grade classes. The teachers regard multi-grade classes as more demanding to teach than mono-grade classes. The workload in multi-grade classes involves preparing and maintaining two sets of scheme-cum-plan books and professional records books, as well as marking two sets of end of term tests. Mulkeen and Higgins (2009) as well as Joubert (2010) cited in Chapter 3 also report negative teacher attitudes towards multi-grade classes in studies of MGT in other countries. Berry (2010), mentioned in Chapter 3, reports that in South Africa, mono-grade teachers regard multi-grade classes as an unavoidable ‘nuisance’. A close analysis of the research findings and the existing studies suggests that the lack of training in MGT is the underlying factor that influences teachers to hold negative attitudes towards multi-grade classes. I agree with Brown (2010) cited in Chapter 3 that, the negative attitudes that mono-grade teachers take to the multi-grade classroom negatively affect their commitment and quality of instruction. Heneveld and Clarke (1996) cited in Chapter 2, emphasise that positive rather than negative teacher attitudes create an ideal milieu for school effectiveness and the provision of quality education.

Large class size is another pedagogical problem that poses complexities to the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. All the teachers and TICs in the selected schools were either teaching large mono-grade classes or large multi-grade classes. The literature reviewed in Chapter 2 (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; PoZ, 2012), indicates that satellite schools are associated with low

enrolments and small class sizes. The problem of large class size is a recent phenomenon linked to the TRF reviewed in Chapter 3. Large class sizes have created the problem of overcrowded classrooms in satellite schools. The classrooms become so congested that the learners destroy the instructional media that the teachers display and the learning centres they establish. Consequently, the teachers no longer display instructional media in their classrooms. A bare classroom environment in terms of instructional media denies learners opportunities for independent learning and the consolidation of learnt concepts. In this set-up, the teacher becomes the only source of knowledge for the learners. From the perspective of Heneveld and Craig's (1996) SEM reviewed in Chapter 2, the absence of instructional media creates a classroom ambience that is not ideal for the provision of quality education.

Large class size creates congested classrooms that compel teachers to employ rote pedagogical approaches, especially the lecture method. The study corroborates findings by Opoku et al., (2014) and Marais (2016) reviewed in Chapter 3 that, the lack of space in overcrowded classrooms forces teachers to employ rote pedagogy. Teacher-centred pedagogy, as indicated by the research participants, does not promote quality education because learners are not actively involved in the teaching and learning process. Expressed differently, rote pedagogy makes learners passive recipients of knowledge. The MoPSE (2015) reviewed in Chapter 3 advocates learner-centred pedagogical approaches that enhance the provision of quality education. In the context of multi-grade classes, Brown (2010) cited in Chapter 3 recommends learner-centred pedagogical approaches such as self-study, peer tutoring, and co-operative group work as ideal for the provision of quality education.

Evidence from this study indicates that large multi-grade classes further complicate the provision of quality primary education in satellite schools. The teachers who teach large and congested multi-grade classes not only employ the lecture method but also focus on teaching the curriculum content of senior grades. Resultantly, the curriculum content of learners in the junior grades of multi-grade classes is not covered. Despite the perennial problem of large class size, teacher development programmes in most African countries, including Zimbabwe, are not preparing pre-service teachers to teach and manage large classes (Opoku et al., 2014; Marais, 2016). Therefore, the teacher development programmes in African countries including Zimbabwe are 'blind' to the problem of large class size.

This study acknowledges the findings by Wadesango et al. (2016) that large classes overburden teachers with heavy marking loads. The teachers contend with the heavy marking loads by assigning learners very few assignment items. This study went further to establish that the assignment items are not only few but also of the low order type. The poor quality and inadequate quantity of the assignment items compromise the quality of education in large classes. Heneveld and Craig's (1996) SEM reviewed in Chapter 2 accentuates that, adequate and frequent learner assessment is critical for school effectiveness, and in turn, the provision of quality education.

Existing studies (Mangwanya et al., 2012; Mutema, 2014) reviewed in Chapter 2 report a critical shortage of textbooks in satellite schools. This study verified the problem of textbooks and went further to explore how the acute shortage of textbooks militates against the provision of quality education in large classes. The unusual cases of over 40 learners sharing one updated curriculum textbook are prevalent in the schools, making the teaching of reading problematic. Learners do not have the opportunity to read textbooks individually or take them home to do homework or home study. This study corroborates the observation by Mutema (2014) cited in Chapter 3 that if there is only one textbook for both teachers and learners, learners are deprived of individual exposure to the textbook. Teachers fear that the learners may tear or steal the textbook. The teachers linked the dire shortage of textbooks in satellite primary schools to the high rate of non-readers in the schools. This is why Heneveld and Craig (1996:20) cited in Chapter 2, underscore that sufficient textbooks are vital supporting inputs for school effectiveness and the provision of quality education.

Large class size makes it extremely difficult for teachers to identify learners who need individualised support. Studies by Adu et al (2014), Imitaz (2014) and Marais (2016) reviewed in Chapter 3 corroborate that it is hard to identify learners who need extra support in large classes. There are fewer chances for a learner with learning problems to get individual attention from the teacher in large and congested classrooms than in small classes. The teachers concentrate on teaching fast learners, neglecting learners with learning difficulties (Wadesango et al, 2016). They exclude learners with learning difficulties. This is against the policy of inclusive education that the GoZ ratified and adopted. The learners move to higher grades without mastering lower grade concepts, a set-up that militates against their mastery of concepts and academic achievement. In

the context of the Equity Model reviewed in Chapter 2, an educational system that is insensitive to the diverse needs of learners is of low quality (Leu & Price-Rom, 2006; OECD, 2012).

Disruptive learner behaviours in congested classrooms thwart efforts by teachers to provide quality primary education in satellite schools. The unruly learner behaviours include deafening noise, bullying, fighting, and destruction of pedagogical resources. Similar disruptive learner behaviours in large classes were observed in South Arabia (Bahanshal, 2013), Zimbabwe (Wadesango et al., 2016) and Zambia (Shwandi, 2017). This study confirms the observation by Marais (2016) that large classes are chaotic and unmanageable. Disruptive behaviours by learners, particularly noise, makes it impossible for learners to concentrate on learning. The teachers teaching large classes devote more time to addressing disruptive learner behaviours than teaching. Addressing learner misconduct in large and cramped classrooms reduces instructional time, learning opportunities, lesson pace, and curriculum coverage (Bahanshal, 2013; Chireshe et al., 2014). This makes large class size one of the major impediments to the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

The phenomenon TICs also complicates the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. Existing studies in Zimbabwe reviewed in Chapter 3 (PoZ, 2010; Mangwanya et al., 2012), report that satellite schools are headed by TICs. However, the studies did not explore the repercussions of the TIC role in the provision of quality education. This study attempted to address this knowledge gap. Although the school leadership and management responsibilities of a TIC and a NTSH are similar in Zimbabwe (PSC, 2019), the TIC has a full-time class to teach. The study substantiates findings by researchers in other countries (Preston et al., 2013; Kgomo, 2016; Pendola & Fuller, 2018) that performing multiple school leadership and management roles consecutively with full teaching loads overburdens teaching principals. NTSHs tend not to experience administrative overloads because they have administrative support staff such as non-teaching deputy principals, secretaries, and bursars to delegate some responsibilities (Preston et al., 2013; Pendola & Fuller, 2018). The administrative responsibilities overburden the TICs because they do not have administrative support staff. The TICs are further overburdened by teaching large mono-grade classes or large multi-grade classes.

The study concurs with Titus (2004) in Brown (2010) that teaching principals are pushed more into administrative responsibilities than the instructional role. Multiple administrative roles leave the TICs with limited instructional time to teach their classes, assign adequate assignment items, and offer individualised support to the learners. This study corroborates findings by Kgomo (2016) in South Africa that school administration responsibilities make it very difficult for teaching principals to complete the syllabuses of their classes. The stress, strain, and burnout from performing multiple roles that TICs take to their classes, affect the quality of their instruction. When TICs are away on school business, their classes are assigned to teachers in the school, and the learners are further disadvantaged. The teachers who are assigned to teach the TIC's class are already overburdened by large their large multi-grade classes or large mono-grade classes. Henceforth, they 'baby-sit' the TIC's class, that is, occupying the class without meaningful teaching and learning taking place. From the perspective of The Education 2030 Agenda (UNESCO, 2015) reviewed in Chapter 2, the learners are left behind in the provision of quality education.

The DS schooling system is another pedagogical practice that creates complexities to the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. This study authenticates the observation by Hlupo and Tskira (2012) cited in Chapter 3 that, DS emerged in satellite schools due to inadequate classrooms. One limitation of Hlupo and Tsikira's (2012) study is that it did not explore the ramifications of DS on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools. Other studies on DS in Zimbabwe (Goronga et al., 2013; Mapolisa et al., 2015; Singadi et al., 2014; Kurebwa & Lumbe, 2015) focused on urban schools. This has created a knowledge gap on the pedagogical repercussions of DS on the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. The study addressed this knowledge gap in the discourse of quality education in satellite primary schools. In satellite schools with DS, lessons for classes in the morning and afternoon sessions start at the same time with learners in the morning session occupying the classrooms. The learners in the afternoon session conduct their lessons in the shades of trees while waiting for their turn to use the classroom. Like in the study held by Goronga et al. (2013) in urban schools, there was no furniture for learners to use under the shades of trees. The severe pain from sitting on the ground, stones, timber logs and bricks distracts the learners' attention from participating and concentrating on learning. The people, vehicles, and animals

passing by distract the attention of learners from learning in the shades of trees. Hence, the shades of trees are not conducive to teaching and learning milieus for the provision of quality education.

The absence of furniture in the shades of trees makes it impractical for teachers to assign learners written assignments in the five learning areas they cover before getting the opportunity to use the classroom. In the classroom, teachers face the dilemma of assigning learners assignments in the five learning areas and teaching four other learning areas in only two hours. The limited instructional time in the classroom compels teachers to focus on teaching examinable learning areas. The study verifies the observation by Bray (2008) cited in Chapter 3 that, the first casualty of limited instructional time in DS settings is non-examinable subjects. As noted by Linden (2001) quoted in Chapter 3, the result is the 'narrowing' of the curriculum. The learners are exposed to an incomplete curriculum that militates against their holistic development and life chances.

The transitional period of the DS schooling system further reduces the instructional time for classes on DS. A whole lesson period is lost while the class moving out packs its books and sweeps the room. The study verifies observations by earlier studies cited in Chapter 3 (Bray, 2008; Singadi et al., 2014; Kurebwa & Lumbe, 2015) that, if the transitional period is not well managed, instructional time is lost. The limited instructional time in the classroom and large class sizes make it difficult for teachers to cater to the diverse needs of learners. The study confirms the observation by Bray (2008) cited in Chapter 3 that, the second casualty of limited instructional time in double-session classes is the provision of individualised support to learners. The teachers focus on teaching fast learners at the expense of learners with learning difficulties. Ashong-Katai (2013) cited in Chapter 3 reports that limited instructional time in the classroom is one of the reasons that influenced the government of Ghana to abolish DS. The government wanted to ensure that learners have adequate instructional time in the classroom. Heneveld and Craig (1996) cited in Chapter 2, underscore that adequate instructional time is a central enabling condition for school effectiveness.

The study acknowledges the findings by Bray (2008) and Goronga et al. (2013) that rainy weather disrupts the DS schooling system. On rainy days, all learners, that is, those in the morning and afternoon sessions of DS find shelter in the available classrooms. The classrooms become so cramped that teachers cannot conduct lessons. Lessons only resume after the rains stop. If it rains the whole day, lessons are suspended. The instructional time that is lost during the rainy season

and the transitional period, compromises curriculum coverage, and the provision of quality education in classes on DS.

According to the OST that informs this study, an OST comprises four integrated elements namely context, inputs, transformation process, and outputs (von Bertalanffy, 1968; Ballantine & Hammack, 2012). A dysfunction in one or more elements of a school organisation can affect other elements and the overall quality of education provided by the school (Ballantine & Hammack, 2012; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). It is evident from the findings of the study that pedagogical processes in satellite primary schools are dysfunctional due to large class sizes, MGT, the multiple roles of the TIC, and DS. The mal-functional pedagogical processes are negatively affecting the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

5.3.2 Theme 2: The nature and quality of management processes in satellite primary schools

This section addressed the second sub-research question of the study: How is the nature and quality of management processes in satellite primary schools implemented during the provision of quality education? It emerged from the study that TICs, SDCs, Heads of 'mother schools', Cluster Heads, and School Inspectors are part of the management process of the satellite school. These stakeholders provide management support to enhance the provision of quality primary education in satellite schools.

5.3.2.1 The quality of management support from School Development Committees

The teachers and TICs proffered the quality of management support that satellite primary schools receive from SDCs.

- **The views of teachers on the quality of management support from School Development Committees**

The findings indicate satellite primary schools are unregistered institutions that do not receive per capita grants from the MoPSE for the procurement of instructional materials. They depend on their SDCs for financial and material resources. One teacher commented, "*…the majority of parents are poor peasant farmers who are struggling to eke a living…they hardly afford to pay school fees.*" Another teacher who said, "*SDCs cannot meaningfully support satellite schools because the*

parents are poor resettled farmers who are failing to pay tuition fees", echoed similar sentiments. The teachers agreed that abject poverty on the part of the parents makes it incredibly difficult for SDCs to provide adequate financial and resource management support to satellite schools.

It emerged that SDCs lack financial resources to provide teachers and TICs with decent accommodation in satellite schools. The poor living and working conditions in the schools contribute to the problem of high teacher turnover. One of the teachers complained, "*We are residing in very small rooms that were used by the former white farm owner as offices and storerooms. Teachers are always transferring from satellite schools to registered schools, mainly because of the problem of indecent and inadequate accommodation*." Another teacher corroborated that accommodation for teachers and TICs is indecent in satellite schools. The same teacher went on to say, "*…there are several cases of two or more teachers sharing a single room in satellite schools. You don't enjoy any privacy when you share a single room…you can't leave with your spouse and children. There is a very high rate of teacher turnover in these schools because of the problem of poor accommodation.*" In this regard, the deplorable and indecent accommodation is fuelling the problem of high teacher turnover in satellite primary schools.

I probed the teachers about the impact of high teacher turnover on the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. One teacher responded by saying, "*The impact of high teacher turnover on the provision of quality education is serious. Due to the Teacher Recruitment Freeze, the MoPSE is taking time to replace teachers who transfer. If we don't get a replacement, more multi-grade classes and large classes are created, and the quality of the teaching and learning process is affected negatively*." Echoing similar sentiments, another teacher said, "*…teacher turnover is very prevalent in satellite schools… at least three different teachers can teach a class in one year. The continuity of the teaching and learning process is affected if a class has a new teacher almost every term*…" The impact of high teacher turnover on the provision of quality education is worse off in multi-grade classes because the new teachers like those who transfer lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy.

The teachers reported that the SDCs of satellite primary schools lack the financial and material resources to construct standard classroom blocks. Regarding this issue, one teacher remarked, "*Although most satellite schools were established almost two decades ago, some are still using the*

pole, dagga and grass-thatched classrooms…the SDCs do not have financial resources to construct standard classrooms." The teachers condemned the make-shift classrooms as unfavourable for the provision of quality education. "*The roofs of the pole, dagga and grass-thatched classrooms leak during the rainy season…the teaching and learning process is stopped for long periods on rainy school days*", complained another teacher. All the teachers agreed that it is nearly impossible to conduct lessons in the pole, dagga and grass-thatched classrooms on rainy school days. They went on to reveal that the instructional time that is lost on rainy school days negatively affects curriculum coverage and the provision of quality education in the schools. Some satellite primary schools adopted DS to cope with the problem of inadequate classrooms. As noted in Section 5.3.1.4, DS also complicates the provision of quality primary education in satellite schools.

Due to limited financial support from the SDC, some satellite primary schools use tobacco barns as teaching and learning infrastructure. The teachers condemned the tobacco barns as unfit for pedagogical purposes. According to one teacher, "*Tobacco barns are designed for curing tobacco, and not for teaching and learning. They have no windows or air-vents. Teachers and learners are always complaining about poor lighting and poor aeration in the tobacco barns.*" The poorly ventilated tobacco barns make it difficult for teachers and learners with poor vision to see the print in textbooks. Another teacher corroborated the problem of poor ventilation by saying, "*The tobacco barns are a health hazard…if one learner contracts a contagious infection like Covid-19, influenza or a cough…it spreads rapidly to the other learners and the teachers*." The teachers also agreed that the tobacco barns produce a lot of heat during the summer season that makes it extremely difficult for learners to concentrate in class.

Owing to the financial challenges of the SDCs, there is a critical shortage of instructional materials in satellite schools. "*There is an acute shortage of textbooks for updated curriculum learning areas…most learning areas have one textbook for both teachers and learners or no textbooks at all*", one teacher complained. All the teachers corroborated this problem. Another teacher aptly expressed the impact of the unavailability of textbooks on the provision of quality education in this way, "*…you want to teach an unfamiliar concept, but there are no textbooks or internet access for you to surf for information…what do you do? You are forced to skip the concept....*" The teachers also complained that furniture was in short supply and some learners learn while sitting

on the floor. One teacher remarked that "*Learning while sitting on the floor is very painful. The pain distracts learners' attention from learning*." With insufficient textbooks and furniture, it is a daunting task for satellite primary schools to provide quality education.

The unavailability of computers militates against the effective implementation of the ICT learning area in satellite primary schools. One teacher remarked, "*Parents don't afford to purchase computers or laptops…most satellite schools only have one laptop that is reserved for administrative purposes*." The other teachers expressed similar sentiments. When asked how they teach ICT without computers or laptops, the teachers responded by saying that they focus on the theoretical aspects of the learning area. Henceforth, the learners do not develop the expected practical competences in ICT.

- **The views of Teachers in Charge on the quality of management support from School Development Committees**

The TICs concurred with the teachers that satellite primary schools are unregistered institutions that do not receive per capita grants from the MoPSE. The schools depend on limited financial support from their SDCs. One of the TICs commented, "…*less than 30% of the parents are paying school fees…the SDCs are financially incapacitated to provide adequate financial support for the development of satellite schools into standard schools that provide quality education.*" All the TICs stressed that SDCs alone do not have the financial and material resources to develop satellite schools into effective schools. They urged the government to assist satellite schools with financial and material resources.

I asked the TICs to identify the problems that the financial challenges of SDCs pose in satellite schools during the provision of quality education. They mentioned barriers to the provision of quality education such as indecent accommodation, high teacher turnover, make-shift classrooms, DS, and inadequate instructional materials. One TIC remarked, "*Teacher turnover is rife in satellite schools…in 2019 alone, we lost almost half of the staff due to sub-standard accommodation.*" In the words of another TIC, "*A teacher barely spends a year at this school due to poor accommodation…*" The TICs echoed the sentiments of the teachers that high teacher

turnover militates against the continuity and effectiveness of the teaching and learning process in satellite primary schools.

It emerged from the interviews that the TICs occasionally fail to get travel and subsistence allowances from the SDC to attend meetings. One of the TICs complained, *"We often miss important meetings and submit urgent submissions late…leading a small satellite school with low cash inflows is a formidable task*." Another TIC expressed the same problem in this way, "*You miss a lot of meetings and important information if you don't use your own money to attend meetings…the problem is that you are not reimbursed the money on time due to low cash inflows. By the time you get refunded, the purchasing power of the money will have been eroded by inflation…it's very frustrating...*" The frustration can negatively affect the TIC's capacity to provide effective institutional and instructional leadership during the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

5.3.2.2 The quality of management support from Teachers in Charge

One of the responsibilities of TICs is to provide management support to teachers. This section presents a discussion and analysis of the nature and quality of the management support that TICs provide to the teachers.

- **The views of teachers on the quality of management support from Teachers in Charge**

The findings show that TICs utilise meetings, class visits, and staff development workshops as avenues for providing management support to the teachers. During the FGIs, the teachers identified two main factors that militate against the quality of management support they receive from the TICs. They mentioned the TIC's dual role of teaching a class and school administration, as well as lack of training in MGT.

One teacher remarked, "*The TICs hardly find time to conduct class visits because they have classes to teach and many administrative responsibilities.*" Echoing similar sentiments another teacher said, *"…you can go for a term or even two terms without being supervised because on top of school administration responsibilities the TIC has a class to teach.*" It is evident from the responses that the TICs under-supervise the teachers. I probed the teachers to establish the impact of inadequate supervision on the provision of quality education. They identified incomplete scheme-cum-plans,

poor quality of teaching, inadequate assignment items, and unmarked exercises books. The teachers also mentioned incomplete record books and a general lack of preparedness by teachers as problems that emanate from inadequate supervision. This makes the inadequate supervision of teachers one of the barriers to the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

The teachers reported that they are not receiving MGT management support from the TICs. One of the teachers commented, "*The approach to multi-grade teaching in this district is to integrate the curriculum content of the grades making up a multi-grade class and then teach the content from simple to complex. All the TICs are mono-grade teachers; they cannot assist us…we are left to experiment on our own*…" The teachers revealed that their main challenge is to integrate content for multi-grade classes without professional training in MGT and MGT support from the TICs.

The findings show that TICs facilitate staff development workshops to familiarise teachers with the nature of new learning areas in the updated primary school curriculum. The teachers expressed mixed feelings regarding the extent to which they are benefiting from the workshops. One teacher commented, "*The workshops are providing us with opportunities to discuss and address some of the pedagogical challenges we encounter in teaching new learning areas like VPA, Mass Displays, ICT, Agriculture, and Heritage Studies*." The teachers complained that the workshops focus on mono-grade pedagogy at the expense of multi-grade pedagogy. One teacher put across the problem in this way, "*Yes, we are holding workshops on the updated curriculum, but they focus on mono-grade teaching methods as if all the teachers are teaching mono-grade classes. There is no one to assist teachers in teaching multi-grade classes…the workshops are far removed from our day to day challenges of teaching multi-grade classes*." The teachers reported that the lack of MGT support from TICs forces them to treat multi-grade classes as mono-grade classes in terms of curriculum content and teaching methods. When probed, the teachers indicated that they only teach the curriculum content of senior grades in multi-grade classes. Consequently, the curriculum content of the junior grade is not covered, a set-up that negatively affects the mastery of concepts and academic achievement of the learners in the junior grades of multi-grade classes.

- **The views of TICs on the quality of management support TICs provide to teachers**

The TICs indicated that they fail to provide MGT support to teachers due to their dual role of teaching and school administration, as well as lack of professional training in MGT. They reported

that they experience time constraints to conduct class visits. In the words of one TIC, "*It's not feasible to supervise each teacher at least once per term because I have a class to teach and a lot of school administration responsibilities...as I supervise the teachers, no one will be attending to my class*…" Another TIC argued, "*The set standard of at least one termly supervision visit per teacher was set with a non-teaching head in mind. For a TIC with a full teaching load and school administration responsibilities, it's not practical.*" The TICs concurred that they do not adequately supervise the teachers. Inadequate supervision has a negative bearing on the provision of quality education in the schools.

The TICs revealed that they neither received pre-service nor in-service training in MGT to enable them to provide effective MGT support to the teachers. One of the TICs remarked as follows, "*TICs are mono-grade teachers who are just thrust into the TIC role without induction into multi-grade pedagogy. They can't assist much in issues relating to multi-grade teaching. They also need in-service training in multi-grade teaching.*" Another TIC who had more than seven years of teaching experience in a multi-grade setting had this to say, "*Regardless of my long teaching experience in multi-grade classes…I'm still experiencing challenges in teaching a multi-grade class or supporting other teachers who are teaching multi-grade classes. I need in-service training in multi-grade teaching…*" In the absence MGT support, the mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings are unlikely to provide quality education.

5.3.2.3 The quality management support from Heads of 'mother schools'

It emerged that the teachers and TICs in satellite schools receive management support from the Heads of 'mother schools'. This section presents an analysis and discussion of the views of the teachers and TICs regarding the quality of the management support they receive from the Heads of 'mother schools'.

- **The views of teachers on the quality of management support from Heads of 'mother schools'**

The teachers expressed the nature and quality of management support that the Heads of 'mother schools' provide to satellite primary schools. One form of management support that the teachers mentioned was the donation of updated curriculum textbooks by 'mother schools'. This was

clearly expressed by one teacher who said, *"This school got a donation of one updated curriculum textbook per grade in the four core-learning areas of Mathematics, English, Science, and Chishona from the 'mother school*." The teachers at the two other satellite schools acknowledged receiving the same donation from their 'mother schools'. "*Although the textbooks are very few, they are a shot in the arm…it was a formidable challenge for us to scheme, plan, and teach the core-learning areas of the updated curriculum without textbook*s", remarked another teacher. However, the teachers emphasised that the textbooks were inadequate. They also expressed concern about teaching non-core learning areas without textbooks.

I probed the teachers to mention the other forms of management support that the Heads of 'mother schools' provide to satellite schools. One teacher reported that "*Heads of 'mother schools' induct new TICs into school administration, especially financial management*." The teachers also reported that the Heads of 'mother schools' assist new TICs with the online registration of Grade 7 candidates with the ZIMSEC.

I also interviewed the teachers about the nature and quality of management support that they receive from the Heads 'mother schools'. One teacher complained, "*I approached the Head of the 'mother school' for assistance on how to simultaneously teach different concepts to my multi-grade class, but he couldn't assist me…*" The other teachers corroborated that the Heads of 'mother schools' are reluctant to offer them support regarding MGT issues. "*Heads of 'mother schools' are mono-grade teachers who didn't receive any professional training in multi-grade teaching*", revealed another teacher. Without support from Heads of 'mother schools' and TICs, teachers in multi-grade settings are left to fend for themselves regarding MGT. Hence, we may not expect mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings to provide quality education.

- **The views of Teachers in Charge on the quality of management support from Heads of 'mother schools'**

The TICs confirmed the sentiments of the teachers that some 'mother schools' donate updated curriculum textbooks to their satellite schools. They also confirmed the sentiments of the teachers that the Heads of 'mother schools' induct new TICs into financial management and the online registration of Grade 7 candidates with ZIMSEC. In the words of one TIC, "*I regularly consult the Head of the 'mother school' on school administration issues whenever I collect pay-slips for my*

staff members at the 'mother school'. I'm benefiting a lot on general school administration issues, but I'm not benefiting anything on multi-grade teaching." Another TIC echoed similar sentiments. The TICs revealed that the Heads of 'mother schools' fail to provide TICs and teachers with meaningful multi-grade teaching support because they are mono-grade teachers who are not conversant with MGT. This raises concerns about the effectiveness of the Heads of 'mother schools' as mentors of TICs in school administration and the provision of quality education.

5.3.2.4 The quality of management support from Cluster Heads

Cluster Heads provide teachers and TICs with management support under the BSPZ quality education initiative reviewed in Chapter 3. This section presents an analysis and discussion of the nature and quality of the management support that Cluster Heads provide to the teachers and TICs.

- **The views of teachers on the quality of management support from Cluster Heads**

The MoPSE expects satellite schools to receive management support from Cluster Heads under the BSPZ quality education initiative reviewed in Chapter 3. The schools that participated in the study belong to two different school clusters. All the TICs of the participating schools are part of the team of Cluster Heads in their respective clusters. The Cluster Heads conduct at least one termly on-site supervision visit at each school in the cluster. The supervision mainly focuses on lesson observation, record-keeping, school infrastructure and resources, financial management, production units, and school grounds among other curriculum issues. When asked about the effectiveness of the supervision visits, one teacher responded by saying, "*The supervision visits are effective…the Grade 7 pass rate in satellite schools used to be 0%...because of the on-site cluster supervision visits, the pass rate has improved significantly*." Another teacher remarked, "*The termly supervision visits are a form of quality assurance measure that is improving the quality of education in satellite primary schools.*"

The teachers expressed concerns regarding the on-site supervision visits by Cluster Heads. Their main concern is that Cluster Heads do not provide them with MGT support. According to one of the teachers, "*Cluster Heads demand that we scheme-cum-plan separately for multi-grade classes, but at the same time expect us to integrate content when delivering lessons. They always promise to demonstrate how it is done, but never do so…*" Another teacher who argued that Cluster Heads

apply mono-grade standards even when supervising teachers who teach multi-grade classes corroborated these sentiments. The same teacher went on to say, "*All Cluster Heads are mono-grade teachers who never received pre-service or in-service training in multi-grade teaching*." This means that the teachers, TICs, Heads of 'mother schools', and Cluster Heads lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy. It is apparent from the sentiments of the teachers that, lack of professional training in MGT is a central barrier to the provision of quality education in multi-grade settings.

An inaccessible road and prohibitive distance cut off one of the satellite schools from supervision by Cluster Heads. "*The road to the school is so bad that no transport is plying the route*", commented one teacher. The teachers at the school were very concerned that the inaccessible road is isolating them from management support from Heads of 'mother schools' and Cluster Heads. One of the teachers revealed, "*Because of the inaccessible road, Cluster Heads haven't visited this school for termly supervision visits for over seven years. The termly supervision visits could have equipped us with the knowledge and skills of teaching and managing multi-grade classes…we are disadvantaged.*" The teachers also complained that they are geographically, socially, and professionally isolated from other teachers in multi-grade settings whom they can share with the challenges and solutions to MGT. The isolation of the school from the 'mother school', Cluster Heads, and School Inspectors compromises the quality of its management and pedagogical processes during the provision of quality education.

❖ **The views of TICs on the quality of management support from Cluster Heads**

The TICs concurred with the teachers that supervision visits by Cluster Heads are gradually improving the quality of education in satellite primary schools. They indicated that financial challenges make it difficult for Cluster Heads to hold on-site supervision visits at least once per term. One TIC explained, "*The supervision visits are funded by the BSPZ affiliation fees paid by the schools. Satellite schools don't pay affiliation fees regularly due to low cash inflows…so they are usually supervised once or twice per annum instead of three times….*" The satellite schools utilise the limited financial resources that they raise from school fees for infrastructural development and the procurement of curriculum materials. Another TIC reiterated that satellite schools experience challenges in paying affiliation fees because most parents cannot afford to pay

school fees. The same TIC further continued to say, "*The inadequate supervision visits contribute to the poor quality of teaching and low Grade 7 pass rates in satellite schools*."

All the TICs complained that Cluster Heads do not provide teachers with MGT support because they are mono-grade teachers who also lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy. One TIC put across the problem in this way "*The main limitation of cluster supervision is the composition of our cluster supervision teams. All the members of the teams are mono-grade teachers. There is no one in the teams to provide teachers with professional guidance on multi-grade teaching*." All the TICs who participated in the study mentioned this problem. They also indicated that long distances from one school to another and inaccessible roads hamper the efficacy of supervision visits by Cluster Heads.

5.3.2.5 The quality of management support from School Inspectors

School Inspectors from the MoPSE also provide satellite primary schools with management support. The teachers and TICs expressed their views on the nature and quality of management support they receive from the Schoool Inspectors.

- **The views of teachers on the quality of management support from School Inspectors**

The MoPSE expects School Inspectors to visit each school at least once per term to provide management and pedagogical support. The management support covers curriculum issues such as scheme-cum planning, lesson delivery, class and classroom management, marking, record-keeping, financial management, infrastructural development, and the maintenance of school grounds. "*Owing to a poor road network, financial constraints, and inadequate vehicles, School Inspectors often provide on-site management support once per annum*", commented one teacher. The teachers agreed that the limited and infrequent on-site supervision visits contribute to low Grade 7 pass rates in satellite schools. Expressing similar sentiments another teacher said, "*The Grade 7 pass rate at this school is the lowest in the whole district because School Inspectors and Cluster Heads haven't visited us for on-site supervision for over seven years due to an inaccessible road*." This is a clear testimony that the management support from School Inspectors and Cluster Heads is critical for the provision of quality education.

Like the TICs, Heads of 'mother schools' and Cluster Heads, the School Inspectors do not provide MGT support to teachers in multi-grade settings. This problem emerged when one teacher said, "*School Inspectors provide us with useful support in all areas of the school curriculum except for multi-grade teaching*." Another teacher complained, "*When we approach the School Inspectors with problems concerning multi-grade teaching, they don't assist us. They tell us that we are the people on the ground who should address the multi-grade teaching problems…*" The teachers stressed that they are in a dilemma regarding MGT because Heads of 'mother schools', School Inspectors, Cluster Heads, and TICs lack the expertise to assist them. The School Inspectors, Cluster Heads, Heads of 'mother schools', and TICs need in-service training in multi-grade pedagogy to enable them to provide MGT management support to the teachers in multi-grade settings.

❖ **The views of TICs on the quality of management support from School Inspectors**

The TICs acknowledged that School Inspectors provide management support to satellite schools in the form of on-site supervision visits and workshops. One TIC commented "…*supervision visits are usually held once or twice per annum. They are quite comprehensive in all curriculum areas except for Multi-grade Teaching. School Inspectors always promise us a workshop on Multi-grade Teaching, but for over a decade now the workshop hasn't materialised.*" Another TIC echoed the sentiments of the teachers when she complained that, "*When School Inspectors come for on-site supervision visits, they focus on mono-grade curriculum issues and tell us to formulate our strategies of mitigating the multi-grade teaching challenges that we present to them.*" One TIC corroborated the sentiments of the teachers that Cluster Heads and School Inspectors had not visited the school that he leads for over seven years due to an inaccessible road. The same TIC further continued to say, "*I'm the only supervisor of the teachers…there is no one who is supervising me and the school*." This raises concerns about the quality of education the school provides in the absence of external supervision.

The findings also indicate that School Inspectors conduct staff development workshops on the implementation of the updated curriculum with the TICs. The TICs then cascade the information to the teachers in their respective schools. All the TICs reported that the workshops focus on mono-grade pedagogy at the expense of multi-grade pedagogy. In the words of one TIC, "*All the*

workshops are silent on multi-grade teaching…School Inspectors are turning a blind eye on Multi-grade Teaching…" The other TICs echoed similar sentiments and revealed that the MoPSE policies and the updated curriculum framework are also silent on MGT. They revealed that the School Inspectors are also mono-grade teachers who require in-service training in MGT. This means that the teachers, TICs, Heads of 'mother schools', Cluster Heads, and School Inspectors lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy. In this set-up, complexities to the provision of quality education in multi-grade settings are inevitable in satellite schools.

❖ Discussion

Satellite schools receive management support from SDCs, Heads of 'mother schools', Cluster Heads, and School Inspectors. The government mandates each school to establish a SDC under Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992 (GoZ, 1992) reviewed in Chapter 3. The SDC provides financial support for the school's pedagogical resource needs through charging and collecting school fees from parents. Satellite schools receive limited financial support from their SDCs because most parents do not afford to pay school fees. The study confirms existing literature (PoZ, 2012; Tarisayi, 2015) cited in Chapter 3 that, the majority of the fast track land reform beneficiaries are poor peasants who do not afford to pay school fees. The schools highly depend on the limited support from their SDCs for financial and material resources because they do not meet MSFS (Section 3.7.1) to register with the MoPSE. Unregistered schools do not access per capita grants from the MoPSE for the procurement of pedagogical resources (Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014). This set-up has created insurmountable infrastructural and instructional resource challenges in satellite schools. The challenges include deplorable accommodation, make-shift classrooms, and the unavailability of computers.

The study confirms the observation by Hlupo and Tsikira (2012) that deplorable accommodation contributes to the problem of high teacher turnover in satellite schools. This study went further to explore the consequences of high teacher turnover on the provision of quality education in the schools. The problem of teacher turnover is so rampant that three different teachers can teach the same class in one academic year. This scenario negatively affects the continuity and quality of the teaching and learning process, and in turn, curriculum coverage. Owing to the TRF reviewed in Chapter 3, the ministry takes time to replace teachers who transfer, leading to severe understaffing,

large class sizes, and multi-grade classes in the schools. As noted in Section 5.3.1, large class sizes and multi-grade classes are complicating the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

The SDCs lack financial resources to procure computers for the teaching of ICT, a new learning area in the updated primary school curriculum reviewed in Chapter 3. Each school has one laptop reserved for administrative purposes. Due to the unavailability of computers, most teachers do not teach the ICT learning area. Those who attempt to teach the learning area, focus on theoretical aspects at the expense of practical skills. As such, learners do not acquire the practical skills of using computers. Blignaut et al (2010) and Jenjekwa (2013) cited in Chapter 2, regard an education system that is deficient in the utilisation and application of ICT to be of poor quality.

One of the roles of the SDC is to provide TICs with subsistence and travel allowances when they go out on school business. Satellite schools are grappling with low cash inflows because as mentioned earlier, most parents are poor peasants who do not afford to pay school fees. The low cash inflows make it difficult for SDCs to provide TICs with travel and subsistence allowances. The findings verify observations by PoZ (2012) and Tarisayi (2015) that most land beneficiaries live in poverty and cannot afford to pay school fees. The failure by the TICs to attend meetings regularly results in professional and social isolation. The schools miss information that is critical for the provision of quality education.

The MoPSE expects TICs to provide management support to teachers through staff development workshops, meetings, and class visits. Available studies in Zimbabwe (PoZ, 2012; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014; Mutema, 2014) acknowledge that TICs head satellite schools. However, the studies did not explore the quality of management support that TICs provide to teachers. The dual role of teaching a class and performing school management responsibilities leaves TICs with limited time to provide adequate management support to the teachers. Studies by Haingura (2014) in Namibia and Mulaudzi (2016) in South Africa cited in Chapter 3 corroborate that teaching principals fail to offer adequate management support to teachers because of the multiple roles they perform. Due to inadequate supervision, there is a lack of preparedness and poor quality of teaching by teachers in the schools. As noted earlier, this is the reason why the fast track land reform beneficiaries want the MoPSE to appoint NTSHs to lead satellite primary schools.

The TICs do not provide teachers in multi-grade settings with MGT support. The workshops they hold in the schools on the implementation of the updated curriculum focus on mono-grade pedagogy as if all the teachers are teaching mono-grade classes. Lingam (2007) and Gasa (2016) cited in Chapter 3 corroborate that, teaching principals are unable to support teachers in multi-grade settings because they are not professionally trained in MGT. Similarly, all the TICs who participated in this study are mono-grade teachers who neither received pre-service nor in-service training in multi-grade pedagogy. The TICs like the teachers need in-service training in MGT.

Studies by Chakanyuka et al. (2009) and PoZ (2012) cited in Chapter 2, indicate that the MoPSE expects Heads of 'mother schools' to provide management support to their satellite schools. However, there is scholarly silence on the nature and quality of the management support that Heads of 'mother schools' provide to satellite schools. It has emerged from this study that some 'mother schools' donate updated curriculum textbooks to their satellite schools to ease the acute shortage of textbooks in the schools. This verifies the sentiments of the teachers and TICs in Section 5.3.2.1 that satellite schools receive limited financial support from their SDCs. The Heads of 'mother schools' also induct new TICs in school administration and the online registration of Grade 7 candidates. It was noted that the Heads of 'mother schools' do not provide teachers and TICs in multi-grade settings with MGT support. Like TICs, the Heads of 'mother schools' are mono-grade teachers who did not receive professional training in MGT. The quality of education in multi-grade classes is unlikely to be of good quality when teachers, TICs, and Heads of 'mother schools' are not conversant with multi-grade pedagogy.

Satellite schools also receive management support from Cluster Heads under the BSPZ quality education initiative reviewed in Chapter 3. There are no published studies in Zimbabwe on the nature and quality of management support that Cluster Heads provide in satellite schools. It emerged that Cluster Heads offer management support to the TICs and teachers in satellite schools through on-site supervision visits. The supervision visits cover lesson observations, record-keeping, school infrastructure and resources, financial management, production units, and school grounds. The study corroborates the findings of a study by Jita and Mokhele (2012) in South African schools cited in Chapter 3 that school clustering improves the pedagogical skills of teachers and the quality of education. The Grade 7 pass rates of satellite schools are improving gradually due to the on-site supervision visits by Cluster Heads.

Due to low cash inflows, satellite schools usually fail to pay the BSPZ affiliation fees that fund cluster supervision visits by Cluster Heads. Consequently, Cluster Heads supervise the schools once or twice per annum instead of at least three times. This verifies the sentiments of teachers and TICs in Section 5.3.2.1 that, most parents do afford to pay school fees. The study confirms the findings of existing studies (Jita & Mokhele, 2012; Makaye, 2015) that lack of financial resources is a major factor that militates the effective implementation of school clusters in rural settings. Another limitation of the supervision visits is that Cluster Heads are mono-grade teachers who are not able to provide MGT support to mono-grade teachers teaching multi-grade classes. If the teachers in multi-grade settings do not receive MGT support from TICs, Heads of 'mother schools', and Cluster Heads, they cannot be expected to teach effectively. Some satellite schools do not receive any management support from Cluster Heads and Heads of 'mother schools' because of inaccessible roads. The teachers and TICs in the schools are isolated from management support that is vital for the provision of quality education.

Satellite primary schools also receive management support from School Inspectors. The study corroborates existing studies in Zimbabwe (PoZ, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013) reviewed in Chapter 3 that School Inspectors do not frequently visit satellite schools. Infrequent supervision visits are a consequence of inadequate vehicles, financial constraints, and inaccessible roads. This study went further to explore the nature and quality of the management support that the schools receive from Schools Inspectors. The schools receive management support from School Inspectors through on-site visits and workshops. The supervision covers scheme-cum-planning, lesson delivery, class and classroom management, marking, and record-keeping. It also includes infrastructure and resources, financial management, and the maintenance of school grounds. The participants expressed satisfaction with the support they receive except for MGT. The study corroborates studies in other African countries (Mulkeen & Higgins, 2009; Taole 2014b; Mulaudzi, 2016; Siririka, 2018) that education officials do not provide teachers with MGT support. Like in the existing studies, the School Inspectors are mono-grade teachers who lack expertise in multi-grade pedagogy. Without support from School Inspectors, Cluster Heads, Heads of 'mother schools' and TICs, mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings lack guidance on how to teach and manage multi-grade classes effectively.

The MGT support that the TICs and teachers require includes content integration, timetabling, scheme-cum-planning, teaching methods, learner assessment, class organisation, and class management. Owing to the lack of MGT support, the teachers and TICs treat multi-grade classes as mono-grade classes in terms of curriculum content. They focus on teaching the curriculum content of senior grades in multi-grade classes. Consequently, the curriculum content of the junior grades is not covered, and the progress of the learners is negatively affected. Studies on MGT in other countries (Mansoor, 2011; Taole & Mncube, 2012; Haingura, 2014) cited in Chapter 3 made similar observations. Mono-grade teachers need MGT training and support to enable them to handle multi-grade classes effectively (Haingura, 2014; Gasa, 2016).

From the perspective of the OST reviewed in Chapter 2, management processes fall under the transformation process of a school organisation (Ballantine & Hammack, 2012; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). In the context of this study, the SDCs, TICs, Heads of 'mother schools', Cluster Heads, and School Inspectors are part of the management process. Quality education depends on the technical competences of teachers and educational administrators (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012; Hoy & Miskel, 2013). A dysfunctional management process has a negative bearing on organisational outputs that represent the quality of education in this study. The management process of the satellite school is mal-functional due to a lack of financial support from the government and limited financial support from the SDC. Another management process deficiency of the satellite school is the multiple roles of TICs that leave them with limited time to provide management support to the teachers. The lack of technical competency in MGT by TICs, Heads of 'mother schools', Cluster Heads, and School Inspectors is another deficiency of the management process of the satellite school. Overall, the dysfunctional management processes complicate the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

5.3.3 Theme 3: The management of prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools

This section presents an analysis and discussion of the findings generated from the third sub-question: How are the prospects and complexities of quality primary education in satellite schools currently managed?

5.3.3.1 The management strategies proffered by the teachers

The findings indicate that the teachers and TICs conduct school-based MGT staff development workshops to address the challenges that they experience in teaching multi-grade classes. The teachers reported that the thrust of MGT in Makonde District is to integrate the content of multi-grade classes and teach it from simple to complex. Through school-based workshops, the teachers have managed to identify similar and different learning content of the grades comprising multi-grade classes in their respective schools. They noted that the learning content in language learning areas is generally different and, therefore, difficult to integrate. One teacher remarked, "*Our main challenge is how to teach similar and different content from simple to complex practically…there is no one to provide us with in-service training…*" All the teachers who participated in the study corroborated this challenge. They appealed to the MoPSE to organise a comprehensive MGT in-service training programme for all teachers in satellite schools.

There is understaffing of at least three teachers at each satellite school due to the TRF imposed by the PSC in 2015. The SDCs of satellite schools contend with the problems of understaffing and large class sizes caused by the TRF by employing extra teachers. The findings show that SDCs are responsible for remunerating the extra teachers that they employ. However, the SDCs of satellite schools confront financial challenges in hiring adequate additional teachers because most parents do not afford to pay school fees. One teacher remarked, "*One or two extra teachers are hired for a term or two, and their contracts are terminated due to financial constraints*." Responding to a question on the utility of employing extra teachers, one teacher said, "*Employing additional teachers reduces the number of large class sizes and multi-grade classes in satellite schools*." Another teacher who said, "*Multi-grade classes are separated, and large mono-grade classes are divided into two or more classes…the classes become smaller and more manageable*," aptly expressed the effectiveness of hiring additional teachers.

The teachers reported that satellite schools utilise the SIG reviewed in Section 3.7.4.2 to construct standard classroom blocks as a long-term strategy of addressing the acute shortage of classrooms and DS. They revealed that the annual SIG funding of US$4 500.00 is insufficient to complete the construction of a standard classroom block. The SDCs mobilise parents to supplement the SIG funds through contributing free labour and building materials. As reported by the teachers, the

parents are contributing labour, water, quarry stones, river sand, bricks, tools, and pit sand towards the construction of standard classroom blocks.

The acute shortage of updated curriculum textbooks in the schools creates pedagogical challenges during the provision of quality education. The teachers reported that they mitigate this problem by utilising old curriculum textbooks to teach some updated curriculum learning areas. One teacher explained this mitigation strategy in this way, "…*we are using old curriculum textbooks with relevant content to teach updated curriculum content*." This mitigation strategy is inapplicable to completely new learning areas such as VPA, Agriculture, Mass Displays, and ICT. The teachers expressed desperation about teaching new learning areas with the syllabus as the only source of content. They implored the government to provide satellite primary schools with updated curriculum textbooks.

The teachers explained the strategies that the TICs employ to contend with their multiple roles. In the words of one teacher, "*TICs make up for the instructional time of their classes that is lost while they conduct school administration duties in various ways. Some conduct early morning lessons while others teach their classes in the afternoon from 2 pm to 4 pm*." Another teacher reported that some TICs leave work for their classes to do while they are away on school business. The TIC assigns one of the teachers to supervise their class. "*The teacher who is assigned to supervise the class is already overburdened by his or her large class*," commented one of the teachers. The teachers agreed that this strategy is ineffective. They urged the MoPSE to appoint NTSHs to head satellite schools.

The findings show that TICs sometimes multi-task to cope with their multiple roles. In the context of this study, the term multi-tasking entails performing the teaching and school management roles concurrently. One teacher who said, "*TICs simultaneously teach their classes and supervise the professional documents of teachers*", gave a typical example of multi-tasking. The TICs also use after school hours and weekends to contend with their multiple school administration and management responsibilities.

5.3.3.2 The management strategies proffered by Teachers in Charge

The TICs confirmed that they conduct school-based staff development workshops on MGT. What is compelling them to conduct the workshops is the lack of MGT support from Heads of 'mother schools', Cluster Heads, and School Inspectors. One of the TICs remarked, "*When we approach School Inspectors with the multi-grade teaching challenges we confront, they don't assist us. They always advise us that we are the people on the ground who should devise strategies of addressing the problems*." The staff development workshops are ineffective because of the lack of resource persons in the schools with expertise in MGT.

The TICs echoed the sentiments of the teachers that SDCs employ extra teachers to combat understaffing and high teacher-learner ratios linked to the TRF. One of the TICs commented that "*Our fees and cash inflows are very low…we don't afford to hire adequate extra teachers like established schools*." When I probed the TICs about the efficacy of employing additional teachers one of them responded by saying, the number of large classes and multi-grade classes is reduced. "*Teaching loads become manageable…teachers can assign adequate assignments items to learners and cater for their individual needs*," elaborated another TIC. The TICs proposed that the lasting solution to the problem of understaffing and large class sizes is for the government to unfreeze the recruitment of teachers.

The TICs acknowledged the sentiments of the teachers that the SDCs of satellite primary schools utilise SIG funds to construct standard classroom blocks to mitigate the problems of DS and large class sizes. They applauded the parents for contributing labour and building materials towards the construction of standard classroom blocks. One TIC revealed, "*Each household is going to contribute one 50 kg bag of maize towards the construction of the standard classroom block. The SDC will sell the maize to the Grain Marketing Board and use the money to procure building materials and pay builders*."

The TICs confirmed that the dire shortage of updated curriculum textbooks in satellite schools poses pedagogical challenges to the provision of quality education. They verified the sentiments of the teachers that the schools utilise old curriculum textbooks to teach relevant updated curriculum content as a stopgap measure. One of the TICs remarked, "*The problem is that you don't find all the updated curriculum content in the old curriculum textbooks…for new learning*

areas like VPA, Mass Displays, and ICT there are hardly any sources for teachers to consult." The TICs indicated that they are not able to procure many updated curriculum textbooks using the SIG funds because they use the same funds for infrastructural development.

It emerged from the TICs that a lot of the instructional time of their classes is lost when they perform multiple school management responsibilities. When I asked the TICs how they compensate for the lost instructional time, one TIC responded by saying, "*…I always take advantage of the study period from 2 pm to 4 pm on Tuesdays and Thursdays to teach my class any uncovered content*…" Other TICs hold lessons early in the morning before normal lessons start. All the TICs indicated that compensating for the lost instructional time is quite beneficial to the learners, but it exacerbates their workloads.

The TICs explained the strategies that they employ to ensure that when they are away on school business, the teaching and learning process continues in their classes, and the learners are not disadvantaged. One TIC explained, "*Before I leave for a meeting or workshop, I prepare work for my class and ask one of the teachers to attend the class in my absence. When I return, I check on the learners' mastery of the concepts and address any problem areas*." The other TICs reported that they either write the work on the board or give the teachers who will attend their classes the page numbers for all the work they expect their classes to do in their absence.

The TICs multi-task as a strategy of coping with multiple roles. One TIC explained how she multi-tasks in this way, "*I don't have a clerk…if I want to conduct the online registration of Grade 7 candidates, I first give my class some work to do and then call the Grade 7 learners one by one to my class for registration.*" The same TIC went on to say, "*While registering the learners, I also teach and supervise my class.*" Another TIC indicated that he usually performs administrative roles from his classroom rather than in the office. "*If you serve parents and other visitors from your classroom, they realise that you have a class to attend to and you are busy…they usually don't stay unnecessarily long after being served*," argued the TIC.

The findings of the study also indicate that due to multiple roles, the TICs do not have enough time to perform all administrative duties during school hours. The TICs corroborated the sentiments of the teachers that they use after school hours and weekends to contend with their multiple roles. One of the TICs revealed, "*I often take two hours after school hours if I want to supervise teachers'*

professional documents or learners' exercise books." Expressing similar sentiments another TIC said, "*Most of the time you work after school hours and during weekends to get things done and meet deadlines*." Performing multiple administrative roles and teaching overburden the TICs, affecting the quality of the institutional and instructional leadership they provide.

❖ **Discussion**

It emerged that the lack of MGT support from Heads of 'mother schools', Cluster Heads, and School Inspectors compels teachers and TICs to conduct school-based workshops on MGT. The workshops are ineffective due to the unavailability of resource persons in the schools with pre-service or in-service training in MGT. This confirms the claim by Kivunja and Sims (2015) cited in Chapter 3 that, MGT is a specialised pedagogy with a demanding conceptual architecture that requires rigorous pre-service or in-service training.

The SDCs employ extra teachers to manage the problems of understaffing, and large class sizes caused by the TRF reviewed in Section 3.6.4.2. The findings indicate that hiring additional teachers enhances the provision of quality education in satellite schools. The schools separate multi-grade classes and divide large mono-grade classes into two or more classes. The classes become smaller and more manageable for teachers to assign adequate assignment items and offer individualised support to the learners. However, this management strategy is unsustainable because of low cash inflows in satellite schools. This confirms existing literature (PoZ, 2012; Tarisayi, 2015) cited in Chapter 3 that, the majority of parents are poor peasants who cannot afford to pay school fees. Consequently, satellite schools hire very few additional teachers for very short periods.

Satellite schools utilise SIG funds reviewed in Section 3.7.4.2 to construct standard classroom blocks as a long-term strategy of addressing the acute shortage of classrooms and DS. The study verifies the observation by Tarisayi (2015) cited in Chapter 3 that the SIG is enabling satellite schools to complete the construction of their first standard classroom block projects that they had abandoned due to financial constraints. To complement SIG funds, the SDCs mobilise parents to contribute free labour and building materials towards the construction of standard classroom blocks.

There is an acute shortage of updated curriculum textbooks in satellite schools. The schools are currently managing this problem by utilising old curriculum textbooks to teach some updated curriculum learning areas. This strategy is inapplicable to completely new learning areas in the updated curriculum such as VPA, Agriculture, Mass Displays, and ICT. In these learning areas, teachers rely on the syllabus as the only source of content. Henceforth, their content knowledge in the learning areas is very low. This set-up impinges on the provision of quality education in the schools.

School leadership and management responsibilities leave TICs with limited time to teach their classes. The TICs compensate for the lost instructional time by conducting lessons early in the morning before normal lessons start, and during study periods in the afternoon. When TICs are away on school business, they leave work for their classes and assign teachers to supervise the classes. The teachers do not effectively teach the TIC's class because they are already overburdened by their large mono-grade and multi-grade classes. This disadvantages the learners in the TIC's class in terms of curriculum coverage and academic achievement.

The TICs cope with their dual role of school management and teaching through multi-tasking. They multi-task by performing teaching and school management roles concurrently. The TICs also contend with multiple roles by performing some school management responsibilities after school hours and during weekends. The study concurs with Newton and Wallin (2013) cited in Chapter 3 that, teaching principals experience stress and tensions related to conflicting role demands and workload intensification. The stress and tension have a negative bearing on the quality of education they provide.

5.3.4 Theme 4: Strategies for improving the quality of education in satellite primary schools

This section addresses the following fourth sub-question of the study: How can quality education be improved in satellite primary schools?

5.3.4.1 Strategies recommended by the teachers

The teachers who participated in the study recommended the following strategies:

- ❖ The MoPSE should organise MGT in-service training workshops for the mono-grade teachers in satellite schools. The teachers also recommended that School Inspectors, Cluster Heads, and Heads of 'mother schools' require the same in-service training to enable them to offer MGT support to the mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings.
- ❖ The teachers agreed that the MoPSE should introduce MGT allowances to motivate teachers to take up multi-grade classes.
- ❖ The teachers urged the MoPSE to liaise with teachers' colleges to deploy student teachers in satellite schools to handle extra classes that compel the schools to adopt MGT.
- ❖ The teachers recommended the government to establish a programme for the construction of standard infrastructure and the provision of updated curriculum materials in satellite schools.
- ❖ The teachers recommended that rural district councils should ensure that there are clinics, shopping centres, police stations, and accessible roads in FTLRRAs.
- ❖ All the teachers who participated in the FGIs agreed that the government should lift the TRF to address the problem of large class sizes in satellite primary schools.

The strategies recommended by the teachers cover the context, resource inputs, and transformation process dimensions of quality education. By implication, the quality of education in satellite primary schools is generally poor in all dimensions of quality education.

5.3.4.2 Strategies recommended by the Teachers in Charge

The TICs recommended the integration of multi-grade pedagogy in the teacher development programmes for pre-service teachers. One TIC remarked, "*I wonder why teachers' colleges and universities only train mono-grade teachers when there are a lot of multi-grade classes in satellite schools. It's high time they include multi-grade pedagogy in all teacher development programmes*." For practising mono-grade teachers, TICs, Heads of 'mother schools', Cluster Heads, and School Inspectors, the TICs recommended intensive MGT in-service training workshops.

The TICs expressed concern about the lack of a multi-grade school curriculum, policies, and curriculum materials to guide teachers in teaching multi-grade classes. One of the TICs commented, "*It's very difficult for TICs to offer teachers support on adapting the mono-grade curriculum to multi-grade settings without a policy framework and relevant instructional*

materials…" All the TICs recommended the MoPSE to prepare a national primary school multi-grade curriculum, policies, syllabuses, and textbooks.

The TICs complained about performing teaching and school management roles concurrently. One TIC lamented, "*We hardly have enough time to teach or perform administration roles. Heavy workloads, burnout, and stress is the order of the day*." The TICs agreed that the classes that they teach are disadvantaged in terms of instructional time. They recommended the MoPSE to appoint NTSHs in satellite schools so that each class has its teacher and no learner is disadvantaged.

The TICs urged the government to provide satellite schools with grants for infrastructural development and the procurement of updated curriculum textbooks. One of the TICs commented, "*The grants will go a long way in addressing the acute shortage of updated curriculum textbooks, Double-sessioning, and poor working conditions in the schools*." The TICs agreed that the grants would enable the SDCs to construct standard infrastructure and address the problem of high teacher turnover.

The TICs revealed that DS shortens the instructional time in the classroom, compelling teachers to focus on teaching examinable learning areas. They recommended the government to roll out an infrastructural development programme for satellite schools in the mode of the SIG to mitigate the problem of DS. In the words of one TIC, "*The infrastructural development programme will also address the problem of poor living and working conditions that are fuelling cases of high teacher turnover in satellite schools*."

The TICs condemned the TRF implemented by the PSC in 2015 for acute understaffing and high teacher-learner ratios in the schools. One TIC lamented, "*In some classes, the teacher-learner ratio is as high as 1:103 due to the teacher recruitment freeze. The workload is unbearable. Quality education is unattainable in very large classes*…" The TICs unanimously recommended the MoPSE to lift the TRF and fill up all the vacant teaching posts in satellite primary schools.

The TICs expressed concern about infrequent on-site supervision visits in satellite primary schools by the School Inspectors. They also mentioned cases of satellite schools that are not receiving on-site supervision visits from Cluster Heads and School Inspectors because of inaccessible roads. The TICs recommended the Rural District Council to ensure that all routes to satellite schools are

accessible. They also urged School Inspectors to make more frequent supervision visits to satellite primary schools.

❖ **Discussion**

A close analysis of the recommendations proffered by the TICs and teachers shows that most of them fall in the transformation process dimension of quality education. The recommendations provide insinuations on prospects of quality education in satellite primary schools in the context of pedagogical and management processes. From the perspective of the OST that informs the study, recommendations are a form of feedback. Like feedback, recommendations enable a school organisation to correct its deficiencies in the provision of quality education. The strategies of improving the quality of education in satellite primary schools proffered by the teachers and TICs are synthesised into the recommendations of the study in Chapter 6.

5.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented an analysis and discussion of the findings of the study. The findings indicate that there are factors that militate against the quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools. On the one hand, large class sizes, MGT, the multiple roles of TICs, DS, and high teacher turnover negatively affect the quality of pedagogical processes in the schools. On the other hand, lack of financial support from the government, limited financial support from the SDC, and lack of MGT support compromise the provision of quality education in the schools. The deficiencies in the transformation process of the satellite primary school militate against the provision of quality education. The participants proffered the strategies that the schools are currently employing to manage the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools. They also proposed recommendations for improving the quality of education in satellite primary schools.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This study explored the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools in the context of pedagogical and management processes. Chapter 5 presented an analysis and discussion of the findings of the study. This chapter presents a summary of the main findings, conclusions, and recommendations of the study. The recommendations and conclusions emerged from the findings of the study. The limitations of the study are also proffered.

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

It is important to reiterate the main research question and sub-questions of the study as stated in Chapter 1. The study sought to address the following main research question:

- How can the prospects and complexities of quality primary education in satellite schools be adapted to enhance the provision of quality education?

The sub-questions were:

- What is the nature and quality of pedagogical processes in satellite primary schools in the provision of quality education?
- How is the nature and quality of management processes in satellite primary schools implemented during the provision of quality education?
- How are the prospects and complexities of quality primary education in satellite schools currently managed?
- How can quality education be improved in satellite primary schools?

Chapter 1 presented the introduction and background to the study. It was noted that the quality of education in satellite primary schools concerning context and resource inputs factors is well documented (Section 1.1). The knowledge gap on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools during the provision of quality education

prompted the study (Section 1.2). This chapter provided the background to the study and the problem statement. It also looked at the research aim and objectives; main research question; and sub-questions of the study. The other issues covered in this chapter are literature preview; a summary of the research methodology; relevance of the study; delineation and limitations; dissemination of the findings; definitions of terms; and demarcation of chapters.

Chapter 2 reviewed literature on quality education. Various competing definitions of quality education were clarified to develop an operational definition for the study (Section 2.2). Several models of quality education (Section 2.3) and school effectiveness research (Sections 2.4) were discussed in detail. It emerged from the literature that there are four main dimensions of quality education, namely context, inputs, transformation process, and outputs. The study was cast in the transformation process dimension, which is a knowledge gap in the discourse of the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. Based on the reviewed literature and the research problem, the OST was adopted as the theoretical framework of the study (Section 2.5). The chapter ended by discussing the social and economic pay-offs of quality education that include socio-economic development, improved living conditions, and universal completion of primary education (Section 2.6).

Chapter 3 presented a review of the literature on the quality of education in small rural schools. Satellite primary schools fall under the category of small rural schools in Zimbabwe (Section 3.1). The satellite school type emerged in former White-owned LSCFAs following the FTLRP in 2000 to provide education to the children of the fast track land reform beneficiaries. It emerged in the same context as former White-owned farm schools for the children of Black farm workers during the colonial era. The literature on the quality of education in farm schools in colonial Zimbabwe provided the historical and contextual background to the quality of education in satellite primary schools (Section 3.3). Section 3.5 discussed in detail the existing literature on factors affecting the quality of education in satellite primary schools. The chapter also reviewed the literature on pedagogical and management practices in small rural schools (Section 3.6). The literature provided insights into the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools. The chapter ended by discussing the quality education initiatives that the GoZ implemented to improve the quality of primary and secondary education in the country (Section 3.7).

Chapter 4 presented and justified the research methodology adopted to address the main question and sub-questions of the study stated in Chapter 1. The study adopted the interpretive-qualitative research methodology with emphasis on the multiple case study design. The research methodology enabled me to understand the prospects and complexities of quality primary education in satellite schools from the perspectives of the research participants. The chapter also presented an explanation of methodological issues such as population, sampling, selection of sites, and selection of participants. In-depth interviews and FGIs were utilised to generate data for the study from TICs and teachers, respectively. TA and CCA were discussed as the procedures for analysing and interpreting data in Chapter 5. Strategies for enhancing the trustworthiness of the study were presented. The chapter concluded with a discussion of how ethical issues were dealt with during the study.

Chapter 5 presented an analysis and discussion of the main findings that emerged from the study. The chapter commenced by providing the contextual data of the study (Section 5.1). This was followed by a presentation of the themes, categories, and sub-categories that emerged from the findings of the study (Section 5.2). The views of the teachers and TICs on each theme were discussed in the context of the literature reviewed in Chapters 1 and 2, and the OST (Section 5.3). The findings show that the quality of education in satellite primary schools is affected by pedagogical and management process deficiencies that are summarised in Section 6.3. The participants proffered how they are currently managing the prospects and complexities of quality education in the schools (Section 5.3.3). They also provided recommendations that can be adopted to improve the quality of primary education in satellite schools (Section 5.3.4).

6.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This section provides a summary of the main findings of the study in terms of emerging themes and categories.

6.3.1 The nature and quality of pedagogical processes in satellite primary schools

It emerged from the study that MGT, the multiple roles of TICs, large class sizes, and DS affect the quality of pedagogical processes in satellite primary schools. This section is a summary of how these pedagogical factors complicate the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

6.3.1.1 The quality of Multi-grade Teaching

Multi-grade classes pose complexities to the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. These classes increased significantly following the severe understaffing in the schools caused by the TRF implemented by the PSC in 2015 (Section 3.6.4.2). Regardless of the prevalence of multi-grade classes in satellite primary schools, no teachers and TICs staffing the schools are trained in multi-grade pedagogy. The pre-service, in-service, and continuing teacher development programmes in the country do not equip teachers with the theoretical and practical skills of MGT. The teachers and TICs lack professional training to teach and manage multi-grade classes effectively. I described the teacher development programmes as 'multi-grade blind'. They are 'blind' to the urgent need for a multi-grade school curriculum, policies, curriculum materials, teachers, and school supervisors in the country.

Zimbabwe's national primary school curriculum framework, policies, and curriculum materials are premised on mono-grade pedagogy. I agree with Taole and Mncube (2012) cited in Chapter 3 that there is a taken-for-granted assumption that mono-grade teachers can adapt to multi-grade pedagogy without professional training. The findings of this study refute this assumption. It emerged that even teachers and TICs with more than 10 years of teaching experience in multi-grade settings, experience challenges in adapting to MGT. The study concurs with Brown (2010) cited in Chapter 3 that for mono-grade teachers to teach multi-grade classes effectively, they should be professionally trained in multi-grade pedagogy.

The teachers and TICs experience challenges in adapting the national mono-grade curriculum to multi-grade settings without pre-service or in-service training in multi-grade pedagogy. The challenges they confront include timetabling, content integration and differentiation, scheme-cum planning, teaching methods, class management, and learner assessment. They cope with these challenges by treating multi-grade classes as mono-grade classes in terms of curriculum content. The teachers and TICs focus on teaching the curriculum content of senior grades in multi-grade classes. They also base learner assessment tasks on the curriculum content of the senior grades. Consequently, the curriculum content of the junior grade is not covered. Zimbabwe's primary school curriculum is spiral. Henceforth, the learners in the junior grades of multi-grade classes experience gaps in content coverage that impact negatively on their academic progress and achievement.

The findings indicate that teachers hold negative attitudes towards multi-grade classes because they regard them as more demanding to teach than mono-grade classes. As a result, the teachers are reluctant to be allocated to multi-grade classes. The negative attitudes that mono-grade teachers take to the multi-grade classroom, affect the quality of education they provide. The underlying factor influencing the negative teacher attitudes towards multi-grade classes is the lack of professional training in MGT.

6.3.1.2 The quality of education in large classes

Large class sizes pose complexities to the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. The problem of large class size is a recent phenomenon linked to the TRF reviewed in Section 3.6.4.2. All the teachers and TICs in the selected schools teach either large mono-grade classes or large multi-grade classes. Due to the large class sizes, the non-standard classrooms in the schools become so congested that teachers cannot display instructional media or establish learning centres. A bare classroom environment in terms of instructional media denies learners opportunities for independent learning and the consolidation of learnt concepts. A classroom ambience of this nature is not conducive to the provision of quality education.

The limited space in the overcrowded classrooms compels the teachers and TICs to employ rote pedagogical approaches, particularly the lecture method. Rote pedagogy does not promote active learner participation that is associated with the provision of quality education. Large multi-grade classes further complicate the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. The teachers manning the large multi-grade classes focus on teaching the curriculum content of senior grades. This creates content coverage gaps among learners in the junior grades, which affect their mastery of concepts and academic achievement.

The large mono-grade and multi-grade classes in satellite primary schools overburden teachers and TICs with heavy marking loads. Due to the large class sizes, it is difficult for the teachers and TICs to review learners' assignments thoroughly. The errors that the teachers and TICs overlook militate against the learners' progress and academic achievement. The teachers and TICs cope with the heavy marking loads by assigning learners very few assignment items that are of the low order type. The poor quality and low quantity of the assignment items deny learners adequate opportunities to practise and master new concepts and skills.

The acute shortage of updated curriculum textbooks in satellite primary schools is complicating the provision of quality education in large classes. The textbook-learner ratio is so high that cases of over 40 learners sharing one textbook are very common. Learners do not have the opportunity to read textbooks individually, making the teaching of reading for fluency and comprehension problematic. The learners cannot take textbooks home to do homework or home study, effectively leaving the teacher as their only source of knowledge. The dire shortage of textbooks is contributing to the high prevalence of learners who are non-readers in satellite primary schools.

The teachers and TICs are overwhelmed by learners who require individualised support in the large mono-grade and multi-grade classes. The large class sizes compel them to concentrate on teaching fast learners, neglecting learners with learning challenges. The teachers and TICs exclude rather than include learners with learning challenges. This is against the inclusive education policy that Zimbabwe ratified and adopted. The learners with learning difficulties move to higher grades without mastering lower grade concepts, a set-up that militates against their academic progress and achievement. From the perspective of the Equity Model of quality education reviewed in Chapter 2, an educational context that is insensitive to the diverse needs of learners is of low quality.

The problem of large class size has culminated in overcrowded classrooms characterised by disruptive learner behaviours. Learner indiscipline makes the classroom environment chaotic, unmanageable, and unfavourable for effective teaching and learning. The learners who want to learn in the large classes can hardly concentrate because of noise and other disruptive behaviours. The teachers and TICs manning the large classes spend more time addressing disruptive learner behaviours than teaching. Consequently, curriculum coverage is compromised and the academic achievement of the learners is affected negatively. The combination of large class size, multi-grade classes, cramped classrooms, and unruly learner behaviours make the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools a daunting challenge.

6.3.1.3 The quality of education in classes taught by Teachers in Charge

The TICs who perform multiple administrative roles simultaneously with full teaching loads head satellite primary schools. The TICs do not have bursars or secretaries to delegate some tasks,

henceforth they are overwhelmed by administrative responsibilities. The multiple administrative responsibilities leave the TICs with limited time to teach their classes, assign adequate assignment tasks, and offer individualised support to the learners. The learners in the TIC's class are disadvantaged in terms of instructional time, curriculum coverage, the number of assignment tasks, and individual support. The stress, strain, and burnout from performing multiple administrative responsibilities that TICs take to their classes, affect the quality of education they provide. When the TICs are away on school business, their classes are further disadvantaged. Large multi-grade and mono-grade classes already overwhelm the teachers who are assigned to attend the classes. The teachers merely occupy the learners without meaningful teaching and learning taking place, a practice referred to as 'babysitting' the TIC's class in satellite primary schools.

6.3.1.4 The quality of education in classes on Double-sessioning

The DS schooling system is another pedagogical practice that is complicating the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. The phenomenon of DS emerged in satellite schools as a stopgap measure to the problem of inadequate teaching and learning space. Lessons for classes on DS are held under the shades of trees before and after the classes get the opportunity to use classrooms. The participants identified four reasons that make the shades of trees unfavourable contexts for the provision of quality education. Firstly, the learners' concentration on learning is continuously distracted by people, vehicles or animals passing by. Secondly, there are no proper sitting places for learners. The pain from sitting on the ground, stones, timber logs, and bricks diverts learners' attention from concentrating on learning. Thirdly, there are no tables or desks for learners to do written assignments. Hence, the classes on DS do fewer written assignments per day than classes that are not on DS. Lastly, the unavailability of mobile chalkboards or whiteboards under the shades of trees for teachers to explain and demonstrate new concepts compromises the mastery of concepts by the learners.

The grades on DS have less instructional time in the classroom than those that are not on DS. The limited instructional time in the classroom compels teachers to focus on teaching examinable learning areas. The study corroborates the observation by Linden (2001) that, learners on DS are exposed to a 'narrowed' curriculum that militates against their holistic development and life chances. The instructional time in the classroom for classes on DS is further reduced during the change-over time. A whole lesson period is lost while the classes moving out pack their books and

sweep the room. Limited instructional time in the classroom coupled with large class sizes make it very difficult for teachers to cater to the diverse needs of learners. The teachers and TICs focus on teaching fast learners at the expense of learners with learning challenges. Consequently, learners with learning challenges are excluded rather than included. This is not in tandem with the policy of inclusive education that Zimbabwe adopted and ratified.

The DS schooling system that some satellite schools adopted to contend with the problem of inadequate teaching and learning space is disrupted by rains, especially during the rainy season. On rainy school days, all learners, that is, those in the morning and afternoon sessions find shelter in the available classrooms. The classrooms become so congested that it is impractical for teachers to conduct lessons. The instructional time that is lost during the rainy season compromises curriculum coverage and the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools with DS.

6.3.2 The nature and quality of management processes in satellite primary schools

This section provides a summary of the nature and quality of management processes in satellite primary schools and their impact on the provision of quality education.

6.3.2.1 The quality of management support from School Development Committees

Satellite primary schools are unregistered institutions that do not receive per capita grants in aid from the government. They depend on their SDCs for financial and pedagogical resources. Parents are the main financiers of their children's education in satellite primary schools. The schools receive limited financial support from their SDCs because most parents are poor peasants who do not afford to pay school fees. Due to limited financial support, there is deplorable accommodation and an acute shortage of classrooms and instructional materials in the schools. These challenges complicate the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

The TICs occasionally fail to attend important meetings because of the incapacity of SDCs to provide travel and subsistence allowances. Consequently, the TICs and the teachers they lead are professionally and socially isolated. This has a negative bearing on the quality of education provided in satellite primary schools. The poor working and living conditions in satellite primary schools contribute to high teacher turnover. The problem of teacher turnover is so rife that three teachers can teach a class in one academic year. High teacher turnover affects the continuity of the

teaching and learning process, curriculum coverage, and the provision of quality education. The schools contend with the problem of understaffing caused by high teacher turnover by creating multi-grade classes and large mono-grade classes. The large multi-grade and mono-grade classes also complicate the provision of quality education in the schools as summarised in Sections 6.3.1.1 and 6.3.1.2, respectively. The acute shortage of classrooms forced some satellite primary schools to adopt DS, which also has negative repercussions on the provision of quality as summarised in Section 6.3.15.

Due to limited financial support from the SDC, there are no computers for teaching the ICT learning area. The teachers and TICs are forced to expose learners to the theory of ICT at the expense of practical skills. This is not in tandem with the competence-based updated primary school curriculum reviewed in Section 3.7.5, which has a bias towards the inculcation of practical and entrepreneurial skills.

6.3.2.2 The quality of management support from Teachers in Charge

The MoPSE expects TICs to provide management support to teachers through staff development workshops, meetings, and class visits. The dual role of teaching a class and performing school management responsibilities leaves the TICs with limited time to supervise and provide adequate management support to the teachers. Due to the inadequate supervision and management support, there is a lack of preparedness and poor quality of teaching by most teachers in the schools. The TICs are not able to provide MGT support to the mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings because they are also mono-grade teachers who lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy. This set-up denies the learners in multi-grade settings the right to quality education.

6.3.2.3 The quality of management support from Heads of 'mother schools'

Satellite primary schools receive management support from their 'mother schools' (Section 3.4.7). Some 'mother schools' provide management support to their satellite schools by donating updated curriculum textbooks. The donations ease the acute shortage of textbooks in the schools. Heads of 'mother schools' also provide management support to their satellite schools through inducting new TICs in school leadership and management, and the online registration of Grade 7 candidates. However, like the TICs, the Heads of 'mother schools' are not able to provide MGT support to mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings because they are also not professionally trained in

multi-grade pedagogy. The quality of education in multi-grade classes is unlikely to be of good quality when the teachers, TICs, and Heads of 'mother schools' are not professionally trained in MGT.

6.3.2.4 The quality of management support from Cluster Heads

Satellite schools also receive management support from Cluster Heads under the BSPZ quality education initiative (Section 3.7.3). The Cluster Heads provide management support to the teachers and TICs through on-site supervision visits. The supervision visits cover lesson observations, record-keeping, school infrastructure and resources, financial management, production units, and school grounds. Owing to financial constraints, satellite schools do not afford to pay the Better Schools Programme affiliation fees regularly. The affiliation fees fund cluster supervisions and other Better Schools Programme activities. Consequently, Cluster Heads do not regularly supervise satellite primary schools. The inadequate supervision contributes to poor quality of teaching and low Grade 7 pass rates in the schools. Like Heads of 'mother schools', all the Cluster Heads are mono-grade teachers who are unable to provide MGT support to mono-grade teachers and TICs teaching multi-grade classes. This set-up further complicates the provision of quality education in multi-grade settings.

6.3.2.5 The quality of management support from School Inspectors

The MoPSE expects School Inspectors to provide management support to TICs and teachers through on-site supervision visits and workshops. The management support covers scheme-cum-planning, lesson delivery, class and classroom management, learner assessment, and record-keeping. It also covers curriculum issues such as the availability of infrastructure and resources, financial management, and the maintenance of school grounds. School Inspectors are unable to supervise satellite schools regularly due to inadequate vehicles, financial constraints, and inaccessible roads. The infrequent supervision visits have a negative bearing on the quality of education in the schools. More so, School Inspectors are mono-grade teachers who neither received pre-service nor in-service training in multi-grade pedagogy. They lack the expertise to provide MGT support to teachers and TICs in multi-grade settings. The teachers and TICs grapple with multi-grade pedagogy without support, leading to poor quality of education in multi-grade classes.

6.3.3 The management of prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools

Teachers, TICs, and SDCs are currently managing the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools. Due to the lack of MGT support from Heads of 'mother schools', Cluster Heads and School Inspectors, the teachers and TICs hold school-based workshops on MGT. The workshops are generally ineffective because of the lack of facilitators in the schools with expertise in multi-grade pedagogy.

The SDCs hire additional teachers to manage the problems of understaffing and large class sizes caused by the TRF. This management strategy is effective, but unsustainable because of the financial constraints of SDCs. The SDCs are only able to hire a few additional teachers for very short periods.

In the absence of financial support from the government, challenges such as make-shift infrastructure, DS, inadequate curriculum materials, and high teacher turnover complicate the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. The SDCs utilise funding from the SIG for infrastructural development and the procurement of pedagogical resources. However, the funding is inadequate. The SDCs and TICs organise parents to supplement the funding from the SIG by contributing free labour and building materials towards the construction of standard teaching and learning infrastructure in the schools. The schools mitigate the acute shortage of updated curriculum textbooks by using old curriculum textbooks in some learning areas. Regardless of strategies such as multi-tasking and compensating instructional time, TICs are overburdened by the multiple roles they perform, and the classes they teach are disadvantaged.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, the study makes recommendations for enhancing the quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools during the provision of quality education. The recommendations provide insights into the prospects of improving the quality of education in satellite primary schools.

6.4.1 National multi-grade primary school curriculum

One of the biggest challenges facing mono-grade teachers in implementing MGT is that the national primary school curriculum, policies, syllabuses, and textbooks are designed for mono-grade pedagogy (Section 5.3.1.1). The research participants urged curriculum planners to develop a national MGT primary school curriculum to guide and support teachers and TICs in multi-grade settings. The Curriculum Development Unit (CDU) can structure the multi-grade primary school curriculum in phases as follows: ECD A and B; Grades 1 and 2; Grades 3 and 4; Grade 5 and 6; and Grade 7. There is also a need to develop syllabuses and textbooks that are in line with the national multi-grade primary school curriculum.

6.4.2 Multi-grade Teaching Handbook

The research participants expressed the need for the MoPSE and the CDU to develop a MGT handbook to guide TICs and teachers in teaching multi-grade classes. The handbook is also useful for pre-service, in-service, and continuing teacher development programmes in MGT.

6.4.3 Integration of multi-grade pedagogy in initial and continuing teacher development programmes

It emerged in Section 5.3.1.1 that teachers and TICs experience challenges in teaching multi-grade classes because they did not receive any pre-service or in-service training in multi-grade pedagogy. The research participants agreed that there is a need for colleges and universities to include a MGT module in their pre-service and continuing teacher development programmes. The module can cover multi-grade curriculum issues such as grade combinations, timetabling, scheming and planning, and pedagogical approaches. It should also cover lesson presentation, classroom organisation, class management, learner assessment, record-keeping, and teaching practice. It is also essential that during teaching practice, student teachers are deployed in both mono-grade and multi-grade settings. This will ensure that the student teachers are equipped with appropriate theoretical and practical skills to teach in both mono-grade and multi-grade settings.

6.4.4 Multi-grade Teaching in-service training workshops for practising teachers and Teachers in Charge

All the teachers and TICs staffing satellite primary schools are mono-grade teachers who lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy. The research participants urged the MoPSE to organise MGT in-service training workshops for the teachers and TICs. The workshops can focus on multi-grade pedagogical issues such as grade combinations, timetabling, scheming and planning, teaching methods, lesson presentation, classroom organisation, class management, learner assessment, and record-keeping. The in-service training workshops equip the teachers and TICs with the practical and theoretical skills to address the pedagogical and management challenges they confront in multi-grade classes.

6.4.5 Appointment of Multi-grade Teaching Co-ordinators

Lack of professional training in multi-grade pedagogy is compelling teachers and TICs to teach the curriculum content of senior grades in multi-grade classes (Section 5.3.1.1). The research participants encouraged the MoPSE to appoint national, provincial, district, and cluster MGT Co-ordinators. The responsibilities of the Co-ordinators would include co-ordinating, monitoring, and evaluating the implementation of MGT in schools. The Co-ordinators will also offer on-going MGT support and guidance to the teachers and TICs in multi-grade settings through demonstration lessons and workshops. In this way, the quality of education in multi-grade classes may improve.

6.4.6 Multi-grade Teaching in-service training for School Inspectors and Cluster Heads

The findings indicate that School Inspectors, Cluster Heads, and Heads of ‘mother schools’ are not providing MGT support to TICs and teachers owing to the lack of professional training in multi-grade pedagogy (Section 5.3.2.5). The research participants agreed that the MoPSE ought to organise MGT in-service training workshops for the School Inspectors and Cluster Heads. The in-service training empowers the School Inspectors and Cluster Heads to conduct MGT in-service training programmes for the TICs and teachers. The training will also enable the School Inspectors and Cluster Heads to attend to the MGT challenges that the TICs and teachers are currently experiencing.

6.4.7 Incentive scheme for teachers in multi-grade settings

Findings from the study indicate that the mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings hold negative attitudes towards multi-grade classes (Section 5.3.1.1). They regard such classes as more demanding to teach than mono-grade classes. There is a need to address the negative attitudes because they affect the teachers' quality of instruction negatively. The Republic of Vietnam successfully motivated teachers in multi-grade settings by offering them a multi-grade teaching allowance (Pridmore & Son, 2006). This approach is worth considering in satellite primary schools where mono-grade teachers are teaching large multi-grade classes.

6.4.8 Appointment of Non-teaching School Heads

Findings from the study reveal that although the school administration roles of TICs and NTSHs are similar, TICs have full-time classes to teach (Section 5.3.1.3). The multiple school leadership and management responsibilities that the TICs perform, leave them with limited time to teach their classes and supervise teachers (Section 5.3.1.3). The TICs and teachers who participated in the study encouraged the MoPSE to appoint NTSHs to lead satellite primary schools. This will ensure that each class has its teacher. The appointment of NTSHs will enhance the quality of school leadership and management in satellite primary schools and the provision of quality of education.

6.4.9 Appointment of Administrative Clerks

The findings in Section 5.3.1.3 indicate that school administration duties overburden TICs because they do not have clerks or bursars to delegate some responsibilities. If funds are not available for the MoPSE to appoint NTSHs, it can consider appointing Administrative Clerks as a stopgap measure. The Administrative Clerks reduce the administration workload of the TICs so that they have sufficient time to teach their classes and supervise teachers.

6.4.10 Unfreezing the recruitment of teachers

It emerged in Section 5.3.1.2 that the large, overcrowded and unmanageable mono-grade and multi-grade classes in satellite primary schools are a consequence of the TRF. Langa (2017) cited in Section 3.6.4.2 reports that the TRF has culminated in over 19,000 unemployed teacher graduates in the country. However, satellite schools are grappling with the problem of severe

understaffing. The TICs and teachers who participated in the study unanimously recommended the PSC to lift the TRF.

6.4.11 Infrastructural Development Fund

The findings in Section 5.3.1.4 indicate some satellite schools adopted DS due to financial constraints by their SDCs to construct adequate classrooms. The DS schooling system is shortening instructional time in the classroom, compromising curriculum coverage and the provision of quality education (Section 5.3.1.4). The previous success stories recorded in the education sector in Zimbabwe in the early 1980s are a consequence of the government's intervention in terms of providing basic infrastructure (PoZ, 2012). The research participants urged the government to establish an Infrastructural Development Fund for the construction of teaching and learning infrastructure in satellite schools. This fund will also address the problem of poor living and working conditions that fuels the problem of high teacher turnover in the schools (Section 5.3.2.1).

6.4.12 Provision of per capita grants

The critical shortage of updated curriculum teaching and learning materials, particularly textbooks and computers, is impeding the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools (Section 5.3.1.2). The schools do not meet MSFS (Section 3.7.1) to register with the MoPSE and receive per capita grants for the procurement of curriculum materials (Section 5.3.2.1). The research participants emphasised the need for the government to register all satellite schools and provide them with per capita grants. The grants will ensure that the schools have adequate supplies of teaching and learning materials that are critical for the provision of quality education.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings of this study raise several pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools that require further research. The following areas need further research:

- The nature and quality of MGT in satellite primary schools.
- The impact of the TIC role on the provision of quality education in satellite schools.
- The impact of large class size on the provision of quality education in satellite schools.
- Perceptions of TICs, teachers, parents, and learners towards DS in satellite schools.

- Further research is required on the quality of management processes in satellite schools.
- The study was limited to four satellite primary schools, four TICs and 16 teachers. There is a need for a comprehensive study at the district, provincial or national level that includes School Inspectors, TICs, teachers, parents, and learners.
- This study focused on satellite primary schools. There is also a need to establish the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite secondary schools.

6.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study was limited to four satellite primary schools in one district due to financial and time constraints. Therefore, the findings may not be transferable to the country as a whole. The findings are, however, significant as they illuminate how pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools militate against the provision of quality education.

6.7 CONCLUSIONS

The section presents the conclusions drawn from the findings that emerged from the study. They address the sub-questions and objectives of the study stated in Chapter 1.

The absence of multi-grade pedagogy in the primary school and teacher education curricula complicates the provision of quality education in multi-grade classes in satellite primary schools. The mono-grade teachers who teach multi-grade classes focus on teaching the curriculum content of senior grades in multi-grade classes. Consequently, the curriculum content of the junior grades is not covered, and the content gaps created negatively affect the academic progress of the learners. The TICs, Heads of 'mother schools', Cluster Heads, and School Inspectors are not able to provide MGT support to mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings. They are also mono-grade teachers who need in-service training in multi-grade pedagogy. The teachers' colleges and universities expected to equip the TICs and teachers with MGT skills, continue to focus on preparing mono-grade teachers. Even the primary school curriculum framework, policies, and curriculum materials are designed for mono-grade classes. I concluded that the primary school and teacher education curricula in the country are 'multi-grade blind'. They are blind to the urgent need for a MGT curriculum framework, multi-grade curriculum materials, multi-grade teachers, and multi-grade school supervisors. A national multi-grade primary school curriculum is indispensable for the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

Large mono-grade and multi-grade classes linked to the TRF pose insurmountable challenges to the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. An acute shortage of updated curriculum textbooks militates against the teachers' efforts to provide quality education in the large and overcrowded classes. The limited space in the overcrowded classrooms forces teachers to utilise rote pedagogical approaches that are not ideal for the provision of quality education. It is difficult for the teachers to assign learners adequate assignment tasks and cater to the diverse needs of learners in the large classes. The teachers spend more time managing disruptive learner behaviours than teaching. The valuable instructional time that is lost compromises the provision of quality education in large classes. Large multi-grade classes further complicate the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. I concluded that the TRF is affecting the quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

The TICs who perform multiple administrative roles simultaneously with full teaching loads head satellite primary schools. This administrative set-up creates complexities to the provision of quality education in the schools. The multiple school leadership and management roles leave TICs with limited time to teach their classes, offer individualised support to learners, and supervise teachers. Therefore, the multiple roles of the TIC are militating against the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

The DS schooling system that is a consequence of inadequate teaching and learning space adversely affects the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. The shades of trees that the schools use as teaching and learning venues before and after learners on DS get the opportunity to use the classrooms are not ideal ambiences for effective teaching and learning. In the shades of trees, distractions from the local environment lower learners' concentration and participation in learning. The lack of furniture, textbooks, and mobile chalkboards or whiteboards in the shades of trees affects the quality of education in class on DS. The DS schooling system creates limited instructional time in the classroom that forces teachers to focus on teaching examinable learning areas thereby exposing learners to an incomplete curriculum. The limited instructional time in the classroom also compels teachers to concentrate on teaching fast learners at the expense of learners with learning challenges. Rainy weather disrupts the DS schooling system and a lot of instructional time is lost. DS is militating against the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools with double-session classes.

Limited funding impedes the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools. The schools do not meet the MSFS to register with the MoPSE and receive per capita grants in aid from the government. They depend on limited financial support from their SDCs. Due to the limited financial support from the SDC, satellite primary schools are characterised by deplorable accommodation, DS, and the acute shortage of instructional materials. The poor living and working conditions in the schools contribute to high teacher turnover. This problem adversely affects the continuity of the teaching and learning process, as well as curriculum coverage in satellite primary schools. Thus, the complexities to the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools are also a consequence of the financial constraints of SDCs and lack of funding from the government.

The infrequent supervision visits by School Inspectors and Cluster Heads in satellite primary schools further complicate and compromise by the provision of quality education in the schools Overall, the study concludes that pedagogical and management process deficiencies in satellite primary schools complicate the provision of quality education.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Ethical clearance certificate

UNISA university of south africa

UNISA COLLEGE OF EDUCATION ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2019/04/17

Ref: **2019/04/17/30544785/26/MC**
Name: Mr G Jakachira
Student no: 30544785

Dear Mr Jakachira

Decision: Ethics Approval from 2019/04/17 to 2024/04/17

Researcher(s): Name: Mr G Jakachira
E-mail address: godjaka@gmail.com
Telephone: +263 77 970 1305

Supervisor(s): Name: Prof VT Zengele
E-mail address: tzengele@unisa.ac.za
Telephone: +27 12 429 4889

Title of research:

The prospects and complexities of quality primary education in satellite primary schools of Makonde district, Zimbabwe.

Qualification: D. Ed in Educational Leadership and Management

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for the period 2019/04/14 to 2024/04/17.

*The **low risk** application was reviewed by the Ethics Review Committee on 2019/04/14 in compliance with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee.
3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date **2024/04/17**. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

The reference number **2019/04/17/30544785/26/MC** *should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Kind regards,

Prof AT Motlhabane
CHAIRPERSON: CEDU RERC
motlhat@unisa.ac.za

Prof PM Sebate
ACTING EXECUTIVE DEAN
Sebatpm@unisa.ac.za

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
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Appendix B: Permission to conduct the study from MoPSE

All communications should be addressed to "The Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education"
Telephone: 732026
Telegraphic Address: "EDUCATION"
Fax: 794505

ZIMBABWE

Reference: C/426/Mash. West
Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
P.O Box CY 121
Causeway
HARARE

4 February 2019

Jakachira Godfrey
Seke Teachers College
P.O. Box SK41
Seke
Chitungwiza

Re: **PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MASHONALAND WEST PROVINCE: MKONDE DISTRICT: [redacted]**

Reference is made to your application to carry out research at the above mentioned schools in Mashonaland West Province on the research title:

"COMPLEXITIES AND PROSPECTS OF QUALITY PRIMARY EDUCATION IN SATELLITE PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN MAKONDE DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE."

Permission is hereby granted. However, you are required to liaise with the Provincial Education Director Mashonaland West, who is responsible for the schools which you want to involve in your research. You should ensure that your research work does not disrupt the normal operations of the school. Where students are involved, parental consent is required.

You are also required to provide a copy of your final report to the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education.

MIN. OF PRY & SEC. EDUCATION
03 FEB 2019
P.O. BOX CY 121 CAUSEWAY HARARE

S Mugari
Acting Deputy Director: Innovation and Development
For: **SECRETARY FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION**
cc: PED - Harare Province

Appendix C: Letter seeking permission from TICs

College of Education
Po Box 392
UNISA
003 PRETORIA

25 March 2019

The TIC
Mr/Mrs/Ms……
……primary school

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: Request for permission to conduct research at your school.

The title of the research study is '**The prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools of Makonde district, Zimbabwe**.'

I, Godfrey Jakachira am doing research under the supervision of Prof VT Zengele, a professor in the Department of Educational Leadership and Management towards a DEd at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled '**The prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite schools of Makonde district, Zimbabwe.'**

The aim of the study is to establish the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools so that they are adapted to enhance the provision of quality education in this school type. Your school and three other schools have been selected because they are satellite primary schools in the study area.

The study will entail: 1) In-depth interviewing of the TIC. Each interview is expected to last 45 minutes, and these will be conducted when the TIC is not teaching; and 2) Focus group interviews of four teachers. Each Focus Group Interview is expected to take one hour. The in-depth interviews and Focus Group Interviews shall be recorded. Every effort shall be made to ensure that minimum disruption of learning occurs during the research process.

Participating in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation. If you decide to take part, you will be asked to sign a written consent. You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

The potential benefit of taking part in this study is that it can generate important information for the improvement of quality education in satellite primary schools.

There are no anticipated inconveniences and risks of participating in the study. You are not going to be exposed to any risks during the course or as an outcome of the research study. Interview

sessions shall be conducted when you and the teachers will not be teaching to avoid disrupting the teaching and learning process.

You have the right to insist that your name will not be recorded anywhere and that no one, apart from the researcher and identified members of the research team, will know about your involvement in this research. Your answers will be given a code number and you will be referred to in this way in the data.

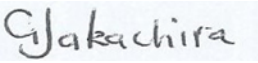
Hard copies of your answers will be stored by the researcher for a period of five years in a locked cupboard in my office for future research or academic purpose. Electronic information will be stored on a password protected computer. The hard copies will be shredded and electronic copies would be permanently deleted from the hard drive of the computer through the use of a relevant software programme.

There will be no payments, reimbursement or any incentives for participation in the research study.

This study has received written approval from the Research Ethics Review Committee of the CEDU, Unisa. A copy of the approval letter can be obtained from the researcher if you so wish.

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings of the study you can contact me for a hard or soft copy. I would be also prepared to visit your school to share the findings of the study if you so wish.

Yours sincerely



Godfrey Jakachira
DEd Candidate
Contact Details
Godfrey Jakachira (Researcher) 263779701305 godjaka@gmail.com
Prof V.T. Zengele (Supervisor) +27124294889 tzengele@unisa.ac.za

Appendix D: Consent form

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY (Return slip)

I……. confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read and understood the study as explained in the information sheet.

I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty.

I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings, but that my participation will be kept confidential unless otherwise specified.

I agree to the recording of the interviews.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Participant Name & Surname (please print)

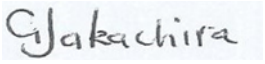
……..……..

Participant Signature ……..

Date ……

Researcher's Name & Surname (please print)

Godfrey Jakachira

Researcher's signature:  Date: 12 March 2019

Appendix E: In-depth interview guide for TICs

1. What is the nature and quality of pedagogical processes in satellite primary schools in the provision of quality education?

2. How is nature and quality of management and supervision processes in satellite primary schools implemented during the provision of quality education?

3. How are the prospects and complexities of quality primary education in satellite schools located in FTLRRAs in Makonde district currently managed?

4. How can quality education be improved in satellite primary schools?

Appendix F: Focus group interview guide for teachers

1. What is the nature and quality of pedagogical processes in satellite primary schools in the provision of quality education?

2. How is nature and quality of management and supervision processes in satellite primary schools implemented during the provision of quality education?

3. How are the prospects and complexities of quality primary education in satellite schools located in FTLRRAs in Makonde district currently managed?

4. How can quality education be improved in satellite primary schools?

10 September 2020

DECLARATION OF PROFESSIONAL EDIT

I declare that I have edited and proofread the Doctoral Thesis entitled**: THE PROSPECTS AND COMPLEXITIES OF QUALITY EDUCATION IN SATELLITE PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF MAKONDE DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE by Mr GODFREY JAKACHIRA.**

My involvement was restricted to language editing: contextual spelling, grammar, punctuation, unclear antecedent, wordiness, vocabulary enhancement, sentence structure and style, proofreading, sentence completeness, sentence rewriting, consistency, referencing style, editing of headings and captions. I did not do structural re-writing of the content. Kindly note that the manuscript was formatted as per agreement with the client.

No responsibility is taken for any occurrences of plagiarism, which may not be obvious to the editor. The client is responsible for ensuring that all sources are listed in the reference list/bibliography. The editor is not accountable for any changes made to this document by the author or any other party subsequent to my edit. The client is responsible for the quality and accuracy of the final submission/publication.

Sincerely,

PZENGELE

Professional EDITORS Guild

Pholile Zengele
Associate Member

Membership number: ZEN001
Membership year: March 2020 to February 2021

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